

Integrated Social Studies Instruction, Curriculum Design and Models
An Educator's handbook

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Research for this book was supported by a grant from the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) of the US Department of State, through the 2004 Armenian High School Social Science Curriculum Development Project administered by IREX (the International Research & Exchanges Board). ECA and IREX are not responsible for the views expressed.

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Bureau of
Educational & Cultural
Affairs

Tigran Mets
Yerevan 2005

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The handbook is designed for high school social studies teachers and those who are interested in the improvement of education in Armenia. The handbook focuses on integrated thematic units and presents theoretical questions related to integration as well as separate thematic units as an alternative suggestion to the high school teachers with the objective of creating an empowering environment for teacher's independent and creative work.

Taking into account the abundance of curriculum integration literature and that IREX programs have published several manuals on integrated units, the authors concentrated on the integration of high school social subjects.

The authors discuss the objective and the necessity of integration, the curriculum integration methods in the teaching process.

Furthermore, the book includes numerous cooperative learning methodologies and effective teaching strategies recommended for teaching integrated curriculum units.

A separate section is devoted to action research, including the organization of a student's independent creative research.

Finally, in the second part of the book the teachers will find six thematic unit samples with lesson plans and accompanying assessment assignments that they can experiment with and make creative modifications or create their own units based on the samples.

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Preface for the High School Handbook

In September 2004, IREX was awarded a grant from the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) of the US Department of State for the High School Social Science Development and Teacher Education Project for Armenia (HST). The goal of the three-year program, often referred to as the High School Training Program or HST, is to further high school education development and to strengthen the capacity of both high schools and pre-service institutions that prepare high school teachers and to strengthen the entire Armenian high school teaching community. HST is designed to empower in-service and pre-service teacher-training institutions both to develop new curricula and instructional materials, and to organize a mentoring program for preservice students.

The authors of the book "Contemporary Approaches for Social Studies Instruction: Handbook for Teachers" are a team of six Armenian high school in-service and pre-service teacher trainers and IREX Consultants/Advisors from Eastern Washington University, Spokane, WA. The six Armenian educators participated in an intensive three-month training program at the Eastern Washington University (EWU) Graduate School of Education, which took place in March – May 2005 under the HST program. As a culminating point of the US training, the six Armenian teacher trainers in partnership with the EWU consultants' team drafted this book in the United States and saw its completion during the summer of 2005 upon returning to Armenia through extensive communication with their colleagues in Armenia and EWU.

The "Contemporary Approaches for Social Studies Instruction: Handbook for Teachers", one of the two handbooks created under the HST program, doesn't claim to give answers to all questions related to in-service and pre-service teacher training for high schools. However, it can become an important tool in the hands of a thoughtful educator who would like to test and apply progressive teaching methodologies to his/her daily teaching activities. After pilot testing in various high schools and pre-service institutions in Armenia, it will be refined for further use. It is expected that input, opinions, and recommendations will come from the Ministry of Education and Science, National Institute of Education, pedagogues, in-service and preservice teachers, and outside experts. This input will be considered when the HST books are edited and when further chapters are developed based on the feedback of the educational community in Armenia.

We believe the HST handbooks are unique for Armenia and perhaps the region as guidelines for the thoughtful educator on how to work with integrated curriculum in the high school environment and how to provide in-service and pre-service teacher training are presented that would encompass historical, theoretical, and highly pragmatic elements. The informed reader will find many familiar elements and theories, as well as many new ideas and interpretations of existing premises within teacher training. Both HST handbooks, the "Contemporary Approaches for Social Studies Instruction: Handbook for Teachers" being one of them, contain theoretical and practical components. The elements selected for inclusion are based on approaches shown to be scientifically effective in varied teacher training circumstances. The team of authors has chosen to concentrate on topics that are central and most useful for high school teacher preparation in Armenia. Best teaching practices and teaching strategies, explanations of modern assessment practices and techniques along with guidelines on how to design lesson plans and curriculum units, are critical features that will interest the pedagogue and the pre-service teacher.

For a long period of time nations in the greater Caucasus Region have looked to Armenia as an exemplar model for education. We hope that the work of the HST team of educators will contribute to and help sustain that most deserved reputation. The HST texts are designed to encourage questions, offer ideas and possible solutions. Armenian teacher education and their preservice students will be further empowered both in using teaching methods and coming up with high school lesson plans and curriculum units that can be used across the disciplines. This group must rise to the task of educating the next generation of Armenian children as Armenia emerges as a strong and vibrant nation and region in education.

I would like to recognize the extensive efforts, dedication, and commitment of the six Armenian teacher trainers and the EWU consultants that went into the creation of this book. I would like to thank the US Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) for their ongoing support and guidance that shaped the program from its inception. In addition, IREX would like to thank the Armenia Ministry of Education and Science and the National Institute of Education for their guidance and ongoing support of the HST Program, their review of the drafts of the handbook, and the program handbooks' pilot testing.

My best wishes to the authors of this new handbook and to the educators who will pilot test and then use it in their daily activities.

Joyce Warner

Director
Education Programs Division
IREX, Washington

October 10, 2005

Preface for the HST Handbooks

These two books,

- *Contemporary Approaches for Social Studies Teaching: Handbook for Teachers* and
- *Curriculum Design & Models, Integrated High School Social Studies Instruction*

have been framed and developed as a part of the High School Social Science Development and Teacher Education Project for Armenia (HST). As with other IREX educational development projects, the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) of the US Department of State have supported this work to whom we are grateful for continued support and encouragement.

It was my privilege to serve as the lead academic advisor to the project, just as I have and continue to do for the Pre-service Teacher Training (PSE), Middle School Teacher Training (MLT), and Elementary School Teacher Training (ELT) projects. As with the MLT and PST projects, I also had the honor of hosting a team of scholars for an advanced 12-week program of graduate level work in the United States. In this instance, the host institution was Eastern Washington University (EWU), in Cheney, Washington, 20 miles west of the city of Spokane, Washington. Those 12 weeks of intensive work, under close guidance and input of IREX, led to immersion into the US education system through a series of carefully planned seminars, workshops, and site visits. These activities became the source of inspiration and the catalyst for the fine product now in your hands. Early in the program, the HST team which is comprised of Armenian educators, IREX staff members, and US advisors set about defining the common ground on which the HST would find its work.

HST Vision

High school is the doorstep to adulthood.

This is the point in individual growth when young adults discover their role in the world and consider the various responsibilities that they must assume as an adult member of their society. Educators' responsibility is to facilitate and guide that development by being exceptional models as well as teaching efficaciously within the subject areas of social studies to advance the students understanding of history, economics, culture, philosophy, national values, and civic principles and responsibilities. In sum, as the HST team, we believe that a strong program in social studies will help adolescents grow into their rights and responsibilities as *citizens* of Armenia.

HST Beliefs

To become an effective citizen, the HST team believes that high school student must come to:

- appreciate “knowing” as the relationship of knowledge-values-skills, rather than as a loose collection of memorized facts, dates, and algorithms.
- know and appreciate history and what lessons it offers to contemporary society.
- develop ethics and values complementary to the society in which they live.
- develop a worldview that understands and appreciates other cultures and points of view.
- value and exercise their independence in a socially acceptable manner.
- understand that independence still requires responsibilities to society as a citizen commits to productive work, service, and to the rule of law within the society.

The HST team believes that for students to learn social studies, they must:

- question the rationale for laws in order to understand them.
- develop an ethic of altruism through a deeper understanding of social studies.
- become skilled at inquiry into social studies matters.
- consider and master the relationship of facts to one another (advancing conceptual understanding).
- accept responsibilities for elements of their own learning rather than being exclusively dependent on the teacher.
- become skilled at developing arguments and opinions based on logic, simple theory, and practical evidence.
- explore a variety of resources and learn how to make choices based on humanistic principles, personal values, and the best information available.
- study and experience social studies in the context of the real world, which connects the disciplinary area of social studies with other subject matter areas and topics.

The HST team believes that citizenship in Armenia and the world requires that we recognize that:

- every student has the right to be different and unique, yet still is obliged to discover their place within society.
- every student must learn to respect differences and value diversity.

The Handbooks

These two new HST texts introduce new topics and expand on the best practices of topics that have become familiar to Armenian educators. As an author team, the six educators, and the US team worked intensely to build on the works, placing the best practices in the special context of high school instruction. Together with IREX, we paid special attention to the priorities and expectations of the Ministry of Education and Science as well, with whom the HST team has consistently collaborated. Hence, while some elements may be familiar—in a general sense to the reader—attentive study will reveal how they are specially designed specifically for the high school level. These texts will be equally useful to the high school teacher, the teacher trainer, and the preservice teacher.

The HST team has carefully examined and created parallel chapters on assessment and methods to align with the spirit and subject of each handbook. *Contemporary Approaches for Social Studies Instruction: Handbook for Teachers* focuses on best practices from a practical and theoretical position. *Curriculum Design & Models Integrated High School Social Studies Instruction* is oriented on curriculum design and the successful teaching of carefully planned, integrated curriculum. The section on assessment, methods, and techniques is a rich and well-documented drawing on the wealth of experiences that the HST team has accumulated through the IREX projects that preceded this and our own scholarly expertise drawn from the best resources and library materials available to the team.

The HST team, has endeavored to go deeper into the specific topics contained in these handbooks, adding more and richer examples that are contextual to the Armenian educational setting. We have advanced the ideas of integration, offering an analysis and carefully constructed

rationale. In the second book, the HST team builds on this foundation with practical examples and structures and recommended steps for educators to adapt and create their own integrated curriculum that can meet state standards.

Along with the expansion and deep study of these familiar topics, applied in the high school setting, we have also introduced three new areas of discussion not present in previous IREX administered projects. First, there are a series of chapters related to values, attitudes, beliefs, and philosophy. We believe as stated above that no high school student can advance to accept their rights as citizens without examining these critical factors. Second, through the special relationship that IREX has developed with the international cooperative learning experts, Roger and David Johnson, we have expanded the discussions on cooperative learning methodologies and introduced the techniques of conflict resolution, as defined by the Johnson brothers. The third unique area is that of inquiry approaches for social studies. In the west, inquiry has traditionally been the domain for the natural sciences; however here, that powerful approach for teaching and learning is artfully woven into our text. Inquiry in social studies can be a powerful force to motivate the learners and keep the learning experience authentic, i.e., real for the students.

The academic team of teacher trainers—**IREX-Yerevan, please list the most correct spelling and best title of each or our six scholars please** performed laudable tasks of intense study, collaborative work, and endless writing to draft and finally refine the text before you. The three months of work in Washington State through EWU, encompassed an intense introduction for the team to western learning theories and methodologies for social studies teaching, an examination of the US school system, and studies and experiences with American high school educators related to advanced studies for the best and brightest of the students (known as “AP” or “advanced placement.”). We condensed what a normal graduate student in the west might study in a year, into a mere 12 weeks. During this time we also framed this text, drafting as much of it as possible prior to the team’s return to Armenia. Each chapter in this text is based on the needs and interests of the Armenia high school social studies educators. The IREX and HST team’s priorities were determined by project needs assessments as well as highly productive and informative face-to-face meetings with the Minister of Education and Science, various other key Ministry officials, and with the outstanding leaders of the Armenian teacher training institutions.

The academic team, in collaboration with me and a select group of US educational scholars produced this text. It was my privilege to collaborate with them during our 12 weeks of work to frame the text. The Project guidelines and two needs assessments—one conducted by IREX and a second follow-on by our team—provided a deep understanding of priorities for the team members and me. The US experts, named among the chapters served as supporting authors and reviewers of the various chapters. Anyone who has written a book or even a chapter for a book can appreciate the Herculean effort needed for the academic team to examine the US educational system *and produce two lengthy texts*. It is a testimony to the dedication and professionalism of the team, that they have accomplished this work in such a brief period.

An Invitation

Changes advocated for education never become part of the system overnight. Implementation requires time, as new ideas and models are put to the test. Through these experiences, understanding and coherence are uncovered. Those bold enough to enmesh

themselves in a pioneering work to make sense of new ideas and discover how make them workable must live in two realities. The first is the one that we know and in which we currently reside. The second is the one that we see on the horizon and work toward each day. These texts represent part of that journey from the *now* to the *future*. The trial period can prove difficult. The educator serving as an “agent of change” must wrestle with new concepts, foreign terminology, and the greatest challenge of all, to attempt practical applications. Such trial periods remain necessary, emphasizing the practical applications so the very best of the new ideas become part of the new Armenian education system based on experiences and scientific results.

Special Recognition

I wish to thank my six Armenian colleagues who formed the HST team and honored us with their cooperation, diligence, and enthusiasm during the grueling 12-weeks of research, learning, debating, and writing while in residence here in Spokane. With the collaborative efforts of so many in mind, I also wish to recognize the special contributions and support of the following institutions and individuals: Ministry of Education and Science of the Armenian Republic, the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the US Department of State; Zaruhi Hovhannisyan, Amy Herchiser, and Tova Pertman of IREX-Washington DC; the IREX-Yerevan team and especially Tamara “Toma” Tsaturyan. Two of my colleagues here in the Spokane area, Dr. Rodger Hauge from Eastern Washington University and Dr. Sharon Mowry of Whitworth College made significant contributions to our work. Dr. Mowry was a fulcrum for our work on assessment. Dr. Hauge advanced our teams understanding of innovative social studies teaching in a variety of ways, and especially related to the use of inquiry and artefacts. We could not have accomplished our tasks without the support and continued work of my colleagues at Eastern Washington University in the Division of Educational Outreach (DEO). Dr. Earl Gibbons, the Executive Director of the DEO and our project co-director who opened doors for us, provided continual support, and made sure the team’s experience was a successful one in all ways. Michelle Tauscher, the DEO Director of International Events, was a constant partner with us through our 12 weeks of work travelling to schools with us, coordinating logistics, and bringing her great skills at problem-solving to bear on any and all barriers to our success. Last is Patrick Lordan, from EWU’s Academic Resources, Administration, and Planning Department who was our technological guru and inspiration, advancing our teams skills in all things technological. We also developed meaningful collaborations with many local educators. Two standouts in this large group included Doug Robnett, of Spokane City Schools, and Marci James of the Central Valley School District. Doug and Marci introduced the team to some of the practical issues and techniques behind curriculum planning and lesson design from the teacher-leader’s perspective. Finally I must thank the local Armenian diaspora who opened their homes and hearts to all of us. Among that kind and supportive group the Garabedian family including Dr. Hihrar and Hilda Garabedian and their son Dr. Carl Garabedian and his spouse, Dr. Jennifer Troiano, went to great lengths to open their homes and lives to us. Partrick Lordan and his spouse Lisa also opened their home to us and the local Armenian Diaspora on multiple occasions.

Personally, it has been an honor to be a part of these reform efforts. I especially want to recognize to our team of six scholars for their great works and inspiring efforts. Also, I must mention my joy at working with people of such fine character and the continued enculturation into all things Armenian that the team patiently provided me.

I look forward to the exciting and demanding 2006 pilot testing phase and beyond to ever improving opportunities for children to learn in Armenia and in the United States. Our partnership strengthens both of our systems, stretching our work beyond the common to the inspired!

Gary Varrella, Ph.D.

HST Lead Academic Advisor, editorial consultant, colleague, & co-author

October 7, 2005

WHAT IS BACKWARD DESIGN?

To begin with the end in mind means to start with a clear understanding of your destination. It means to know where you're going so that you better understand where you are now so that the steps you take are always in the right direction.

-Stephen R. Covey

The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People

Design- (vb) *To have purposes and intentions; plan and execute*

-Oxford English Dictionary

Teachers Are Designers. An essential act of our profession is the design of curriculum and learning experiences to meet specified purposes. We are also designers of assessment to diagnose student needs to guide our teaching and to enable us, our students, and others (parents and administrators) to determine whether our goals have been achieved; that is, did the students learn and understand the desired knowledge?

Like other design professions, such as architecture, engineering, or graphic arts, designers in education must be mindful of their audiences. Professionals in these fields are strongly client centered. The effectiveness of their designs corresponds to whether they have accomplished their goals for the end users. Clearly, students are our primary clients, given that the effectiveness of curriculum, assessment, and instructional designs is ultimately determined by their achievement of desired learning's.

As with other design professions, standards inform and shape our work. The architect, for example, is guided by building codes, customer budget, and aesthetics. The teacher as designer is similarly constrained. We are not free to teach any topic we choose. Rather, we are guided by national standards that specify what students should know and be able to do. These standards provide a framework to help us identify teaching learning priorities and guide our design of curriculum and assessments. In addition to external standards, we also consider the needs of our students when designing learning experiences. For example, student interests, developmental levels, and previous achievements influence our designs.

ARE THE BEST CURRICULAR DESIGNS “BACKWARD”?

How, then, do these design considerations apply to curriculum planning? We use curriculum as a means to an end. We focus on a particular topic, use a particular resource, and choose specific instructional methods (e.g., Socratic seminar to discuss the book and cooperative groups to analyze stereotypical images in films and on television) to cause learning to meet a given standard.

Why do we describe the most effective curricular designs as “backward”? we do so because many teachers begin with textbooks, favored lessons, and time-honored activities rather than deriving those tools from targeted goals or standards. We are advocating the reverse: One starts with the end- the desired results (goals or standards)- and then derives the curriculum from the evidence of learning (performances) called for by the standards and the teaching needed to equip students to perform. This view is

hardly radical. Ralph Tyler (1949) described the logic of backward design clearly and succinctly about 50 years ago:

Educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed, and tests and examinations are prepared.... The purpose of a statement of objectives is to indicate the kinds of changes in the student to be brought about so that instructional activities can be planned and developed in a way likely to attain these objectives.

Backward design may be thought of as purposeful task analysis: Given a task to be accomplished, how do we get there? Or one might call it planned coaching: What kinds of lessons and practices are needed to master key performances? The approach to curricular design is logically forward and commonsensical but backward in terms of conventional habits, whereby teachers typically think in terms of a series of activities or how best to cover a topic.

This backward approach to curricular design also departs from another common practice: thinking about assessment as something we do at the end, once teaching is completed. Rather than creating assessments near the conclusion of a unit of study, backward design calls for us to operationalize our goals or standards in terms of assessment evidence as we begin to plan a unit or course. It reminds us to begin with the question, What would we accept as evidence that students have attained the desired understandings and proficiencies- *before* proceeding to plan teaching and learning experiences? Many teachers who have adopted this design approach report that the process of “thinking like an assessor” about evidence of learning not only helps them to clarify their goals but also results in a more sharply defined teaching and learning target, so that students perform better knowing their goal. Greater coherence among desired results, key performances, and teaching and learning experiences leads to better student performance- the purpose of design.

THE BACKWARD DESIGN PROCESS

The logic of backward design suggests a planning sequence for curriculum. This sequence has three stages, shown in Figure 1. ¹ in this section, we examine these stages and illustrate their application with an example of a design for a 5th grade unit on nutrition.

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Figure 1. Stages in the Backward design process

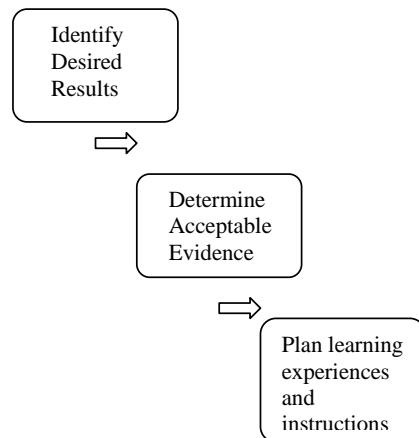
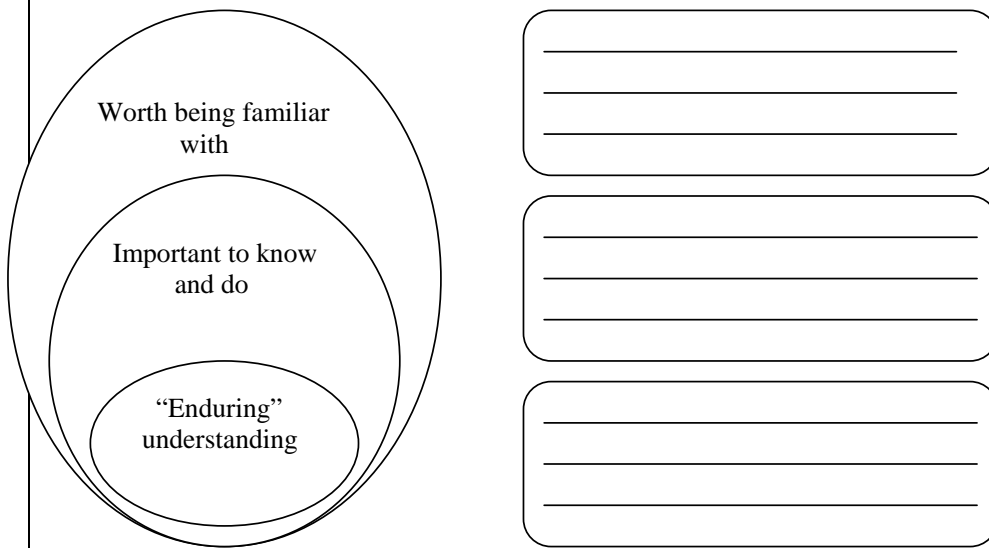


Figure 2 Establishing Curricular Priorities



Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe “*Understanding by Design*”, 1998

Stage 1. Identify Desired Results

What should students know, understand, and be able to do? What is worthy of understanding? What enduring understandings are desired?

In this first stage, we consider our goals, examine established content standards and review curriculum expectations. Given that there typically is more content than can reasonably be addressed, we are obliged to make choices. A useful framework for establishing curricular priorities may be depicted using the three nested rings shown in Figure 1.2.

The empty background within the middle ring represents the field of possible content (topics, skills, and resources) that might be examined during the unit or course. Clearly, we cannot address all areas; thus, the largest ring identifies knowledge that students should find *worth being familiar with*. During the unit or course, what do we want students to hear, read, view, research, or otherwise encounter?

In the middle ring, we sharpen our choices by specifying *important knowledge* (facts, concepts, and principles) and *skills* (processes, strategies, and methods). We would say that student learning is incomplete if the unit or course concluded without mastery of these essentials.

The smallest ring represents finer-grain choices-selecting the “enduring” understandings that will anchor the unit or course. The term *enduring* refers to the big ideas, the important understandings, that we want students to “get inside of” and retain after they’ve forgotten many of the details. For the assessment course, students probably

should be immersed in the principles of validity and reliability through extensive investigation, design work, and critique of sample tests, if they are to understand valid and reliable assessments.

How does one go about determining what is worth understanding amid a range of content standards and topics? We offer four criteria, or filters, to use in selecting ideas and processes to teach for understanding.

Filter 1. To what extent does the idea, topic, or process represent a “big idea” having enduring value beyond the classroom?

Enduring understanding goes beyond discrete facts or skills to focus on larger concepts, principles, or processes. As such, they are applicable to new situations within or beyond the subject.

A big idea also can be described as a *linchpin* idea. The linchpin is the pin that keeps the wheel in place on an axle. Thus, a linchpin idea is one that is essential for understanding. Without a focus on linchpin ideas that have lasting value, students may be left with easily forgotten fragments of knowledge.

In sum, as Jerome Bruner (1960) put it bluntly in *The Process of Education*, “For any subject taught in primary school, we might ask [is it] worth an adult’s knowing, and whether having known it is a child makes a person a better adult”. A negative or ambiguous answer means the “material is cluttering up the curriculum”.

Filter 2. To what extent does the idea, topic, or process reside at the heart of the discipline?

By involving students in “doing” the subject, we provide them with insights into how knowledge is generated, tested, and used. Consider the ways professionals work within their chosen disciplines – conducting investigations in science, writing for different purposes (to inform, persuade, or entertain) to real audiences, interpreting events and primary source documents in history, applying mathematics to solve real-world problems, researching, critiquing books and movies, and debating issues of social and economic policy. Authentic learning experiences shift a student from the role of a passive knowledge receiver into a more active role as a constructor of meaning.

Filter 3. To what extent does the idea, topic, or process require uncovering?

Think about the abstract ideas in the unit or course, those concepts and principles that are not obvious and may be counterintuitive. For example, in physics, students frequently struggle with ideas concerning gravity, force, and motion. When asked to predict which object – a marble or a bowling ball – will strike the ground first when dropped simultaneously, many students reveal a common misconception by incorrectly selecting the bowling ball.

What important concepts or processes do students often have difficulty grasping? What do they typically struggle with? About which big ideas are they likely to harbor a misconception? These are fruitful topics to select and uncover – by teaching for understandings.

Filter 4. To what extent does the idea, topic, or process offer potential for engaging students?

Certain ideas are inherently interesting to students of various ages. And textbook knowledge that initially seems dry or inert can be brought to life by inquiries, simulations, debates, or other kinds of inherently engaging experiences. By having students encounter big ideas in ways that provoke and connect to students' interests (as questions, issues, or problems), we increase the likelihood of student engagement and sustained inquiry. For example, the question, what does it mean to be independent? Not only serves as an essential question for the exploration of topics in social studies but relates to a fundamental quest of adolescence. Ideas such as these are doorways to other big ideas, such as. What are the responsibilities and constraints that accompany increased freedoms? None of these ideas for setting priorities and designing for better understanding is radical or new.

What is perhaps new is offer: a process and set of tools (templates and filters) to make the selection of curriculum priorities more likely to happen by design than by good fortune.

Stage 2. Determine Acceptable Evidence

How will we know if students have achieved the desired results and met the standards? What will we accept as evidence of student understanding and proficiency? The backward design approach encourages us to think about a unit or course in terms of the collected assessment evidence needed to document and validate that the desired learning has been achieved, so that the course is not just content to be covered or a series of learning activities.

This backward approach encourages teachers and curriculum planners to first think like an assessor before designing specific units and lessons, and thus to consider up front how they will determine whether students have attained the desired understanding, teachers should consider a range of assessment methods, depicted in Figure 1.3.

This continuum of assessment methods includes checks of understanding (such as oral questions, observations, and informal dialogues); traditional quizzes, tests, and open-ended prompts; and performance tasks and projects. They vary in scope (from simple to complex), time frame (from short-term to long-term), setting (from decontextualized to authentic contexts), and structure (from highly to nonstructured). Because understanding develops as a result of ongoing inquiry and rethinking, the assessment of understanding should be thought of in terms of a collection of evidence over time instead of an event- a single moment-in-time test at the end of instruction- as so often happens in current practice.

Given its focus on understanding, our unit or course will be anchored by performance tasks or projects- these provide evidence that students are able to use their knowledge in context, a more appropriate means of evoking and assessments (such as quizzes, tests, and prompts) are used to round out the picture by assessing essential knowledge and skills that contribute to the culminating performances. Figure 1.4 shows the balanced use of different types of assessments. We can relate these various assessment types to the nested rings to show the relationship of curriculum priorities and assessments, as Figure 1.5 illustrates.

Stage 3. Plan Learning Experiences and Instruction

With clearly identified results (enduring understandings) and appropriate evidence of understanding in mind, educators can now plan instructional activities. Several key questions must be considered at this stage of backward design:

- What enabling knowledge (facts, concepts, and principles) and skills (procedures) will students need to perform effectively and achieve desired results?
- What activities will equip students with the needed knowledge and skills?
- What will need to be taught and coached, and how should it best be taught, in light of performance goals?
- What materials and resources are best suited to accomplish these goals?
- Is the overall design coherent and effective?

Note that the teacher will address the specifics of instructional planning- choices about teaching methods, sequence of lessons, and resource materials- *after* identifying the desired results and assessments. Teaching is a means to an end. Having a clear goal helps us as educators to focus our planning and guide purposeful action toward the intended results.

Application of Backward Design

Setting: Let's imagine that we are planning a unit on "Seperation of Power" for 9th grade students.

Stage 1. Identify Desired Results

For this topic we have the following standards:

- Students will understand essential concepts seperation of power.
- Students will understand principles of seperation of power.
- Students will understand checks and balances of different branches of power.

Figure 4. Types of Assessment

Quiz and Test Items

These are simple, content-focused questions. They

- *Assess for factual information, concepts, and discrete skill.*
- *Use selected-response or short-answer formats.*
- *Are convergent- typically they have a single, best answer.*
- *May be easily scored using an answer key (or machine scoring).*
- *Are typically secure (not known in advance).*

Academic Prompts

These are open-ended questions or problems that require the student to think critically, not just recall knowledge, and then to prepare a response, product, or performance. They

- *Require constructed responses under school or exam conditions.*

- *Are open. There is not a single, best answer or best strategy for answering or solving them.*
- *Often are ill-structured, requiring the development of a strategy.*
- *Involve analysis, synthesis, or evaluation.*
- *Typically require an explanation or defense of the answer given or methods used.*
- *Require judgment-based scoring based on criteria and performance standards.*
- *May or may not be secure.*

Performance Tasks and Projects

As complex challenges that mirror the issues and problems faced by adults, they are authentic. Ranging in length from short-term tasks to long-term, multistaged projects, they require a production or performance. They differ from prompts because they

- *Feature a setting that is real or simulated: one that involves the kind of constraints, background noise, incentives, and opportunities an adult would find in a similar situation.*
- *Typically require the student to address an identified audience.*
- *Are based on a specific purpose that relates to the audience.*
- *Allow the student greater opportunity to personalize the task.*
- *Are not secure. Task, criteria, and standards are known in advance and guide the student's work.*

Using these standards as the starting point, I need to decide what enduring understanding I want my students to take away from the unit. Although I've never deliberately thought about enduring knowledge, per se, I like the concept and think that it will help me focus my teaching and limited class time on the truly important aspects of this unit. As I think about the three content standards and the four filters for understanding, I think that what I'm really after is

Students will use an understanding of the checks and balances of power for designing concrete cases where checks and balances are applied.

This understanding is clearly enduring, because designing this cases is an authentic, lifelong need and way to apply this knowledge. I'm still a little unclear about what "use an understanding" means, though. I'll need to reflect further on how an understanding goes beyond the use of specific knowledge. The basic concepts of checks and balances are fairly straightforward, after all, as are the skills of democratic governing. Does anything in the unit require, then, any in-depth and deliberate uncoverage? Are there typical misunderstandings, for example, that I ought to more deliberately focus on?

Well, as I think about it, I have found that many students harbor the misconception how checks and balances are functioning. One of my goals in this unit is to show on concrete examples how this principles are working, In terms of the potential for engagement, no problem there. Armenian realities have many interesting cases to show how the principles of checks and balances are structured and functioning.

Stage 2. Determine Acceptable Evidence

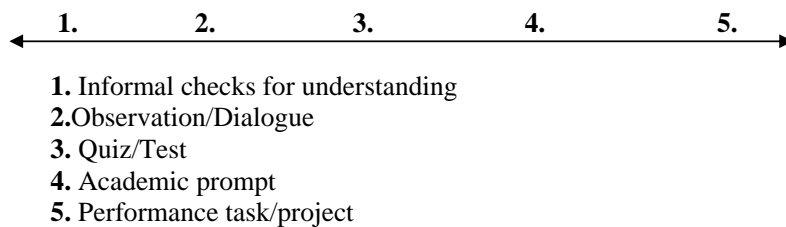
This will be a bit of a stretch for me. Typically in a three- or four-week unit like this one, I give one or two quizzes; have a project, which I grade; and conclude with a unit test (generally multiple choice or matching). Even though this approach to assessment makes grading and justifying the grades fairly easy, I have come to realize that these assessments don't always reflect the most important understandings of the unit. I think I tend to test what is easy to test instead of assessing what is most important, namely the understandings and attitudes students should take away, above and beyond nutritional facts. In fact, one thing that has always disturbed me is that the kids tend to focus on their grades rather than on their learning. Perhaps the way I've used assessments-more for grading purposes than to document learning- has contributed somewhat to their attitude.

Now I need to think about what would serve as evidence of the enduring understanding I'm after. After reviewing some examples of performance assessments and discussing ideas with my colleagues, I have decided on the following performance task:

Because we have been learning about checks and balances, I decided to use practical way for performance task. Recently the principal of our school suggested to set up student council in our school. And I suggested to design the constitution for school council and study the existing constitution of our school. And then to decide what kind of checks and balances will exist between school administration and school council.

I'm excited about this task because it asks students to demonstrate what I really want them to take away from the unit. This task also links well with one of our unit projects: to apply knowledge about checks of balances. With this task and project in mind, I can now use quizzes to check their prerequisite knowledge of the checks and balances and test how this principles will work in the schools. This is the most complete assessment package I've ever designed for a unit, and I think that the task will motivate students as well as provide evidence of their understanding.

Figure 3. **Continuum of Assessment Methods**



Stage 3. Plan Learning Experiences and Instruction

This is my favorite part of planning- deciding what activities the students will do during the unit and what resources and materials we'll need for those activities. But

according to what I'm learning about backward design, I'll need to think first about what essential knowledge and skills my students will need to demonstrate the important understandings I'm after. Well, they'll need to know about the branches of power, what main powers have each branch, They will also need to know about the meaning and role of differentiating power branches. In terms or skills are necessary for their culminating project- implementing principles of checks and balances in student council constitution.

Now for the learning experiences. I'll use resources that I've collected during the past several years- The Constitution of Armenia, Laws on National Ansembly, Government, Judicial bodies and, of course, our textbook Civic Education. As I have for the past three years, I will invite an official from one of governing bodies and ask him to talk on checks and balances of his or her position. I've noticed that the kids really pay attention to a real-life user of information they're learning.

My teaching methods will follow my basic pattern- a blend of direct instruction, inductive (constructivist) methods, cooperative learning group work, and individual activities.

Planning backward has been helpful. I now can more clearly specify what knowledge and skills are really essential, given my goals for the unit. I'll be able to concentrate on the most important topics (and relieve some guilt that I am not covering everything). It is also interesting to realize that even though some sections of the textbook chapters on checks and balances will be especially useful (for instance, the descriptions of powers of each branch), other sections are not as informative as other resources I'll now use. In terms of assessment, I know more clearly what I need to assess using traditional quizzes and tests, and why the performance task and project are needed- to have students demonstrate their understanding. I'm getting the feel for backward design.

Notice that the approach to design described in the Checks and Balances of Power unit has four essential features:

1. The assessments- the performance tasks and related sources of evidence- are designed *prior* to the lessons. These assessments serve as teaching targets for sharpening the focus of instruction, because we know in specific terms what we want students to understand and be able to do. These assessments also guide our decision making about what content that is not essential.
2. Most likely, the familiar and favorite activities and projects will have to be modified in light of the evidence needed for assessing targeted standards.
3. The teaching methods and resource materials are chosen last, mindful of the work that students must produce to meet the standards. For example, rather than focusing on cooperative learning because it's the "in" teaching strategy, the question from a backward design perspective becomes, What instructional strategies will be most effective at helping us reach our targets? Cooperative learning may or may not be the best approach for a group of students and these particular standards.
4. The role of the textbook may shift from the primary resource to a supporting one. Indeed, in the nutrition unit illustration, the grade teacher realized the strengths and limitations of the text. Given other

valuable resources, he didn't feel compelled to cover the book word or word.

5.

Figure 5. **Curricular Priorities and Assessments**

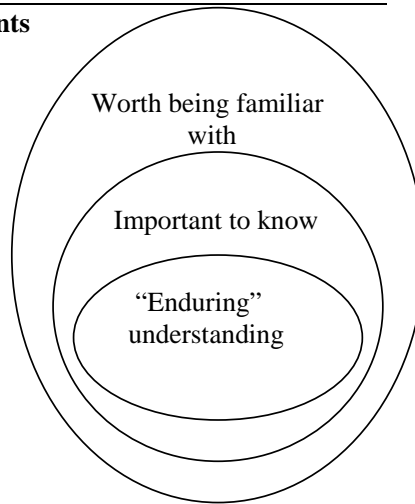
Assessment Types

Traditional quizzes and tests

- Paper/pencil
 - *Selected-response*
 - *Constructed-response*

Performance tasks and projects

- Open-ended
- Complex
- Authentic



Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe *“Understanding by Design”, 1998*

Introduction

Curriculum integration began in the late 1800s with Herbartians, a movement named after German philosopher and educator Johann Friedrich Herbart. He developed the idea of correlating disconnected subject areas around themes, sometimes referred to as “integration of studies” (Klein, 2002). In the 1920s, John Dewey led the Progressive movement; progressive education placed students’ personal and social concerns at the center of curriculum. The term “integrated curriculum” also described the project approach in the 1920s, the core curriculum movement in the 1930s and the problem-based core curricula of the 1940s and the 1950s.

During the 1980s and 1990s “curriculum integration” referred to multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary curriculum designs (Burns, 1995; Drake, 1993; Fogarty, 1991; Jacobs, 1989). Student response to integrated curriculum is very positive. The students are very enthusiastic about their learning, they talk about three different aspects: learning content, learning social skills, and doing interesting activities. Educators must determine the answers to three of the big questions of education

- What is most important for students to KNOW?
- What is most important for students to be able to DO?
- What kind of person do we want students to BE?

The answers to these questions lead to the creation of what we call the KNOW/DO/BE framework? KNOW includes facts, concepts, topics, and generalizations or enduring understanding. The DO is much smaller. It includes cross-cultural, broad-based skills such as communication,

research, information management and other higher-order skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation from Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). The BE includes the attitudes, beliefs, and actions that students are expected to demonstrate. An important step for creating the framework is the backward design process. The backward design process forms the basis for curriculum planning in many countries. The curriculum template in this book is based on the principles inherent in the backward design process explained by Wiggins and McTighe in their book, *Understanding by Design* (1998). Alignment is a fundamental principle of the backward design process and is central to a successful curriculum. Alignment means that curriculum is coherent: a common framework aligns curriculum, instruction and assessment. A backward design process involves the following three steps:

1. Identify desired results
2. Determine acceptable evidence
3. Plan learning experiences that lead students to desired results.

Backward design makes sense when planners systematically follow the model, the content, assessment and teaching strategies are coherent.

Making Sense of Curriculum Integration: an Introduction to integration as natural organizer for Social Studies

What is the value of integration?

“Students do not merely passively receive or copy input from teachers, but instead actively mediate it by trying to make sense of it and to relate it to what they already know (or think they know) about the topic”

(Jere Brophy).

In its simplest conception, integrated curriculum is about making connections and a primary focus is student achievement. Integrated curriculum acts as a bridge to increased student achievement and engaging, relevant curriculum. Defining integrated curriculum has been a topic of discussion since the turn of the 20th century. Social studies serve as an integration of the social sciences: anthropology, economics, geography and sociology. In addition, social studies promote the development of critical and creative thinking as students learn to assume their role as responsible citizens in a democratic society. The other content areas such as language, arts, history, math, science share many of the same basic principles of the social studies. These include such basic learning principles as: 1) respect for the learner and the teacher, (2) belief in the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning and (3) encouragement of learners to experiment and take risks.

It is driven from the inside by the need to communicate and shaped from the outside toward the norms of society.

In the late 1890s and early 1900, John Dewey and his mentor Francis Parker founded the progressive education movement. Dewey promoted “learning by doing” the belief that students learn best when they are active participants in the learning process. Later, by the 21st century, the idea of interdisciplinary instruction –the teaching of more than one content at the same time- had become well entrenched as an instructional technique.

It is important to understand the context of integration as an idea with an intellectual history. Disciplines were artificially created by humans to organize their world, and were often defined by political needs (Beane 1991).

Today, some people criticize educators for not adequately teaching basic skills; others argue that the basic skills students will need for the 21st century is not the same skills that we are now teaching. Educators are caught in a dilemma.

Integration, by reducing duplication of both skills and content, begins to allow us to teach more. It also gives us a new perspective on what constitutes basic skills. The concept of integrated curriculum makes sense for other reasons. Students who drop out perceive little relevance in school life. Integration connects subject areas in ways that reflect the real world. When we set curriculum in the context of human experience, it begins to assume a new relevance. Higher-order thinking skills become a necessity as students begin to grapple with real issues and problems that transcend the boundaries of disciplines.

Another important consideration is how people learn. Recent brain research indicates that the brain searches for patterns and interconnections as its way of making meaning (Caine and Caine 1991). If humans do learn by connection-making, it only makes sense to teach through connections.

The process of developing integrated curriculum is universal in many respects. Integration was a conscious effort to connect curriculum areas that had not previously been connected.

What Are The Reasons For Curriculum Integration?

Curriculum Integration calls for the development of connections between sometimes natural and sometimes seemingly disparate bodies of knowledge and skills, and between students' experiences and backgrounds and what they learn in school. The primary reasons propelling curriculum integration are (1) growing support for learning and assessment experiences that require the application of knowledge rather than memorization of facts; (2) increasing understanding of how the brain processes information through patterns and connections with an emphasis on coherence; (3) emerging awareness that knowledge is neither fixed nor universal, and that problems of real significance cannot be solved out of a single discipline of knowledge; and (4) the belief that an integrated curriculum can help teachers and students overcome rigid and arbitrary perceptions of subject boundaries. For more than 70 years, philosophers, researchers, and education have questioned the validity of separate subject approaches to

curriculum (Wrightstone, 1935, 1936; Informal committee of the Progressive Education Association, 1941; Aikin, 1942; Hanna & Lang, 1950; Soodak & Martin-Kniep, 1994). These reviews indicate that students' learning is enhanced as the curriculum moves further in the direction of integration.

What Is the Process for Developing Integrated Units?

Integrated Units can be developed by individual teachers or by two or more teachers of different subjects who share the same students. Teachers sharing students can amend that process by following these steps:

1. Each teacher within a group identifies two learner outcomes for his or her course or subject. One of the outcomes should refer to something that subject be able to do; other should address something important (a concept or key idea) that students should know. The group consolidates all outcomes listed.
2. The group brainstorms potential organizing centers that would address as many learner outcomes as are on the list and selects a center that best meets the criteria of substantiveness, generalizability, relevance, and so on.
3. The group identifies one essential question for that organizing center, with supporting guiding questions.
4. The group identifies a culminating authentic assessment.
5. The group brainstorms potential activities within different subject areas and skill domains using web.

The group selects activities for the unit and sketches them in pencil, starting from the authentic assessment and working backward to the beginning of the unit.

When sketching, the group identifies lessons and assessments for each day.

What forms should Integration Take?

Integration can occur in many different forms and combinations. Perceptions of top-down mandates of how to integrate have often been met with almost reflex-

like resistance. Allowing groups to come to their own sense of meaning of “what”, guided by a collaborative vision is important. Others, seeing the energy and enthusiasm of those actively involved, are often inspired to join. “Show them that their jobs will be easier” or “better” has convinced many who are hesitant to make a true commitment.

When integrating curriculum, many things will stay the same. However, the paradox is that the beginning of the journey involves endings. Endings are painful. Accompanying anticipation is a sense of loss and anxiety. Humans resist the journey into the new by clinging to the old, even when it doesn’t work anymore. When implementing innovations, educators often tend to add even more to what already exists rather than stop certain practices. Because this just increases the workload, good intentions may be dropped and schools return to their old habits. Therefore, it is helpful to be as explicit as possible about what must end as well as what will continue as before. We also need to be aware of how people experience loss, and acknowledge and support these feelings. Some endings will be obvious. However, more difficult are the endings that are not conscious. For example, when building integrated curriculum, we must let go of our old models of curriculum design. As one thing quickly becomes clear: the old models won’t work for this process. It seems that only by making beliefs explicit can people move on to discover new ways of doing things.

Three different ways of structuring curriculum are presented (Drake, 1993). Multidisciplinary focused on separate disciplines tackling the same theme; interdisciplinary shifted to the generic that could be found across the curriculum; transdisciplinary referred to curriculum that transcended the disciplinary boundaries. At the heart of these different approaches are serious epistemological questions. Jacobs (1989) suggests that students should study epistemological issues such as “What is knowledge?” and “How can we best access knowledge?” For the above mentioned three approaches to integration seem to have different answers. Each approach will include an epistemological stance in the question. What is worth knowing? A guiding conceptual framework

that drives connection-making and consideration of learning outcomes and assessment strategies.

The Multidisciplinary Approach

The multidisciplinary approach views the curriculum through the lens of a discipline that includes content from other disciplines to increase relevance. Teachers who use this approach organize standards from the disciplines around a theme. This approach asks: *What is important to learn within different disciplines?* It keeps the strength of each discipline intact; however, it encourages links between fields of knowledge so that the content has more relevance. Procedural knowledge and the skills of each discipline are presented in ways that connect them to the other disciplines.

Learning outcomes and Assessment

Learning outcomes can still be based on the procedural knowledge of the discipline. Often this is some variation of knowledge, skill and affect. Assessment involves mastery of these procedures. These outcomes may not reflect real life because they are limited to specific content details that are driven by the curriculum.

The interdisciplinary –Skills Approach

In this approach to integration, teachers organize the curriculum around common learnings across disciplines. This approach shifts from an emphasis on applying the themes to subject areas to focusing on the commonalities across disciplines. The interdisciplinary approach shifts to an emphasis to metacognition and learning how to learn. Content lessens in importance. The question becomes: How can we teach a student higher order competencies? In integrating subject areas, students learn that higher-order thinking skills are generic and can be used outside the classroom. This approach is well described by Jacobs(1989) and Palmer (1991). The wheel includes as many disciplines as the curriculum writers wish and helps them make sure that no area is left out. Jacob's (1989) suggests that a model of thinking such as Bloom's taxonomy is a good organizer that is

familiar to teachers. Several subjects' areas might decide upon a problem or "big question" to be explored around a series of questions that follow Bloom's taxonomy and emphasize generic procedures.

Learning Outcomes and Assessment

Learning outcomes are less concrete in the interdisciplinary approach than in the multidisciplinary approach. The differentiation among cognitive, affective and skill domains often dissolves in practice and the outcomes are expressed as "blended". (Those who Attempt to do otherwise seem to find themselves in a force-fit position.) Many learning outcomes are identical across subject areas. Assessment becomes more performance-based and beyond the boundaries of disciplines. The emphasis begins to shift to process rather than product; yet process can still be evaluated sequentially as in "benchmarks" or levels of growth that measure a student's performance.

The Transdisciplinary /Real –World Approach

In this Transdisciplinary approach to integration, teachers organize curriculum around student questions and concerns. Students develop life skills as they apply interdisciplinary and disciplinary skills in a real-life context. Two routes lead to transdisciplinary integration: project-based learning and negotiating the curriculum.

In project-based learning, students tackle a local problem. Teachers and students select a topic of study based on students interests, curriculum standards and local resources. The teacher finds out what the students already know and helps them generate questions to explore. The teacher provides some resources for students. Students display the results of their exploration and review and evaluate the project.

In negotiating the curriculum version student questions form the basis for curriculum.

Interconnections in the transdisciplinary approach are so vast they seem limitless; the theme, strategies, and skills seem to merge when the theme is set in its real-life context. Disciplines are transcended but embedded naturally within the connections if one cares to look. The question in the transdisciplinary approach shifts to: How can we teach students to be productive citizens in the future? This involves skills such as change management, dealing with ambiguity, perseverance and confidence. The emphasis is on meaning and relevance through a life-centered approach; that is knowledge is explored as it is embedded in a real-life or cultural context. The content is not considered to be intrinsically important; in fact it is determined by the theme and student interests rather than because it has been predetermined by any guidelines.

Learning Outcomes and Assessment

The transdisciplinary approach shifts our focus to core leanings that are essential, essential to living one's life in the future. Planners recognize that "the future isn't what it is used to be"; that students are preparing for jobs that in many cases don't even exist yet; that the technologies they will use are not invented. Life skills become paramount. This includes higher-order thinking skills, but not at the expense of learning how to live in a complex world.

Connecting the Approaches

These approaches have been offered as a way of making meaning of curriculum integration. A logical starting point is for two or more subject areas to get together and explore possibilities for integration. The next step seems to be to move into skill development.

The next step seems to be to move into skill development. Here teachers can creatively integrate existing curriculums and still adhere to state requirements. A teacher implementing integrated studies recalled that his learn began planning with a curriculum planning wheel and developing "big questions" to direct the teaching strategies. As time went on the team shifted to planning by the question

What would be best for kids to learn for their future and how they best learn it?

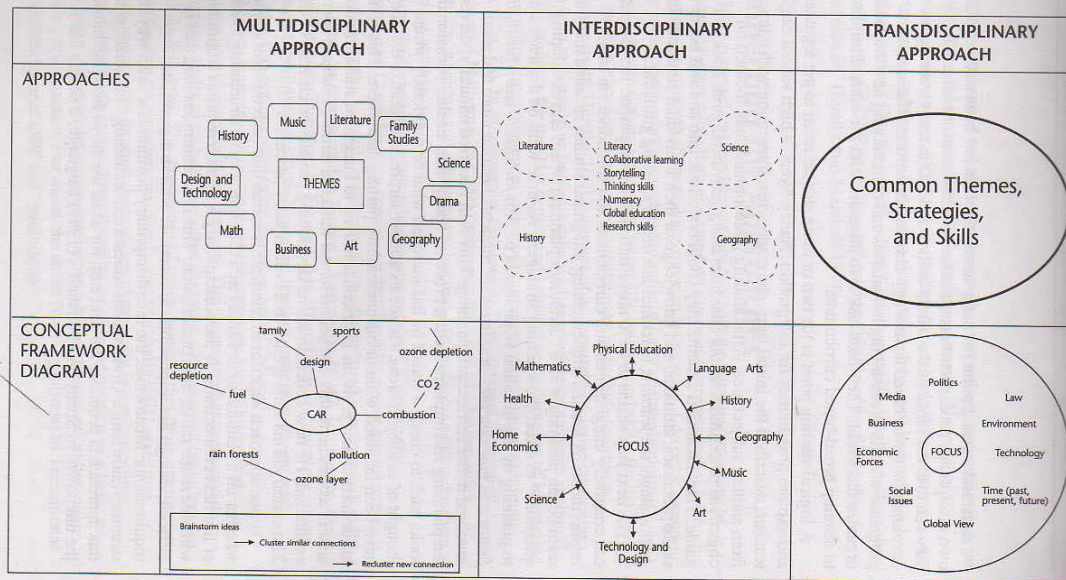
Students became more and more involved in the curriculum planning. This shift occurred naturally, driven by the planning and implementation process. Today, this teacher occasionally looks back to check whether he has included what he previously would have thought of as subject areas. He seems almost surprised to realize that they have been included without his consciously putting them there. This is not a hit-or-miss strategy. As his district has moved to integrated studies as an area of assessment, this teacher no longer thinks in terms of subject specific evaluation. He now concentrates on developing productive citizens of the 21st century. This shift speaks to a evolutionary process.

Is one approach superior to another? It seems that each one has its place, whether on a continuum or simply as a different way of structuring a world of limitless connections. A transdisciplinary approach requires beginning with relevance rather than prescription. This is an enormous leap that is difficult, though not impossible, to reconcile with stringent state requirements.

Meanwhile, the interdisciplinary position is a valid way to structure knowledge. Given recent educational technology in metacognition, this approach is probably the next step for as we move from the known to the unknown.

Thus, Social studies is the study of the cultural, economic, geographic, and political aspects of past, current and future societies. When social studies is incorporated into an integrated curriculum, learners are allowed to make decisions about what they want to learn, and how they will learn it. They become decision-makers and creative thinkers. They become familiar with the world through global education intertwining other content areas as a unit of study. The above mentioned three approaches can be presented in the following way:

FIGURE 5.8
THREE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM MODELS



CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Semantic Web Cluster and Recluster 	Curriculum Wheel	Transdisciplinary Web
WHAT IS WORTH KNOWING?	Procedures of discipline	Procedures of generic skills (e.g., critical thinking, interpersonal)	Skills for productive citizen of the future (e.g., change management, perseverance, confidence, problem solving)
CONNECTION MAKING	Obvious connections through lens of discipline(s)	Connections across disciplines through an inquiry lens	Connections embedded in real-life context emphasizing meaning and relevance
LEARNING OUTCOMES	discipline based <ul style="list-style-type: none"> may be cognitive, skill, and affective 	across discipline <ul style="list-style-type: none"> blended statements (cognitive, skill, and affective dimensions merge) 	essential learnings <ul style="list-style-type: none"> transcend disciplines
ASSESSMENT	Mastery of procedures of discipline	Mastery of generic skills	Attainment of life-skills (higher-order, life-role skills)

What Are The Forms Of Curriculum Integration?

Curriculum Integration can appear in various forms. Integration of content refers to connections of the content within and among subjects. A social studies teacher's use of art or literature to enable students to develop a broader understanding of a cultural region is an example of content integration within a classroom. A social studies teacher and an English teacher teaching a jointly developed unit on culture that blurs the boundaries between the two subjects is an example of content integration across subjects. Both of these forms of content integration are also referred to as interdisciplinary curriculum.

Integration of skills involves connections among skills and processes and the context in which they apply (that is, reading, writing, and thinking across the curriculum). Integration of school and self concerns connections between what goes on in school and students' outside world, including their desires, experiences, aspirations, and interests (Case, 1991).

Each of this form of integration has a rightful place in the classroom and requires purposeful and strategic decisions by teachers. This section represents the integration of content and skills and how such integration relates to curriculum design. One of the most useful ways to promote the integration of students' selves and their learning is the topic of reflection.

What are Organizing centers?

The organizing center is the hub of the unit – what holds it together. There are many kinds of organizing centers, including topics (the Armenian war in Artsakh), themes (bears, aviation), concepts (war, change, flight), phenomena and problems (**deforestation in Brazil, violence in schools**), and issues (human rights, immigration into the United States).

Several authors offer various classifications for organizing centers. These classifications can help teachers assess the relative merits of some organizing centers over others. For example, Beane (1977) classifies organizing centers into the following categories: (1) topics contained within the separate subjects (myth

and legends, the Middle Ages), (2) social problems or issues (conflict, the environment, education), (3) issues and concerns of young people (getting along with peers, life in school, Who am I?), (4) appealing topics (dinosaurs, apples, teddy bears), and (5) process-oriented topics (change, systems, cycles).

On the other hand, Willard Kniep (1979) identifies four kinds of organizing centers that can, in turn, become unit themes: (1) processes of inquiry, (2) concepts, (3) phenomena, and (4) persistent problems. Process-based themes result in skill-building units that social scientists solve problems and investigate reality.

Process-based units include observing, gathering data, establishing comparisons, and marking models. Such units can sometimes be taught as prerequisites of concept- and problem-based units. For example, a teacher might teach, a unit on observation and classification before launching a unit on mass media that requires students to conduct independent research and collect data. Concept-based units are designed to provide students with mental structures they can use to describe the world they live in. Examples include cause/effect relationships, community, culture, change, family, motivation, population, scarcity, systems, supply and demand, technology, and values. A concept-based unit focused on the family might be guided by the essential question *Can you have a family of one?* And might require that students explore different kinds of family units and configurations across generations and cultures and in the arts. Phenomenon-based units enable students to understand the world around them. Examples include banks, communities, economic systems, families, governments, groups, landforms, literature, media, oceans, political organizations, religions, and wars. A unit centered on economic systems might ask students to analyze different economic systems at the micro and macro levels; to explore the relationships among technological, economic, and political systems; and to investigate the social, cultural, and psychological implications of different economic arrangements.

Units centered on persistent problems enable students to understand persistent world problems and to apply what they know to possible solutions for those

problems. An example of such a unit would be the current depletion of the rain forest, whereby students would investigate the rain forest as a problem that affects multiple and diverse peoples and systems.

Some organizing centers - conflict and war, for example – can be categorized as a concept, a phenomenon, or a persistent problem. However, the learning experiences and assessments that teachers select help define the use of the organizing center within a unit so that it can be appropriately placed within one of these categories.

According to Boyer (1995), organizing centers should be selected as they pertain to the human commonalities that contribute to the educated person. These commonalities include the life cycle, language, the arts, time and space, groups and institutions, work, the natural world, and the search for meaning.

Regardless of the classification and choice of centers for a unit, the organizing center should provide the context for unifying the knowledge and skills in a unit. In turn, the content and skills within a unit become critical to students' understanding of the organizing center.

According to Beane (1997), organizing centers that are not related to significant self and social issues are not appropriate for curriculum integration. Thus, one of the considerations for selecting an organizing center should be the extent to which it is generative and can enable teachers to address multiple outcomes and standards, as well as content from different subjects that are naturally related to each other.

Curriculum Integration as a Tool for Coherence

Is All Integration Good?

In many classrooms, teachers feel they have too much to do and too little time to teach everything students need to know. Textbooks and supplementary resources continue to grow in response to an increased knowledge base. In addition, an increasing number of national demands impinge on teachers' use of classroom time. On the other hand, students' needs have not diminished. Human

problems, especially those of children and adolescents, are best dealt with through intense and continuous one-on-one communication and through healthy interactions that enable adults to become positive role models and guides. Such communication is increasingly difficult to come by given the ever-growing compartmentalization of the school day.

Having too much to teach with increasingly thicker and more demanding textbooks presents a challenge. It makes it difficult for teachers to carefully consider the relationships between seemingly unconnected materials from within and across subjects. Much of what students experience as they move from one class to another and from one subject to another is unconnected to a larger whole. It is therefore imperative to find ways to consolidate content so that students and teachers can make sense of the myriad stimuli that affect them. Teachers need to assume greater control of the curriculum by designing and implementing a limited number of integrated units and lessons instead of relying primarily on textbooks and teaching isolated activities and lessons. The overall principle to keep in mind is *coherence*. Curriculum integration can be a critical means for developing coherence in students' learning experiences.

This section presents reasons for curriculum integration, describes three different kinds of curriculum integration, provides guidelines for the selection and use of organizing centers, suggests criteria for judging of integrated units, and raises important issues to consider in the development of units at all levels.

This chapter provides the background and guidelines teachers need to understand before they can build a practical unit with curriculum integrity.

Although this chapter is short, the cautions and guideposts are many. They are not meant to constitute a fixed template and need not be slavishly followed. They are meant to give teachers a feeling for what is at stake and generally how to proceed.

What Criteria Can Be Used To Judge The Merits And Validity Of Integrated Units?

Having a generative and significant organizing center is a necessary but not sufficient condition for developing a valid unit. As teachers develop an integrated curriculum unit, they need to determine the unit's validity by applying at least three other important criteria: (1) significance or meaningfulness, (2) relevance, and (3) cohesiveness or coherence.

The first criterion, significance or meaningfulness, refers to the substance of the lessons within the unit and of the unit itself. It seeks to determine if the lessons and unit address important content in the subject areas addressed. To apply this criterion, teachers could ask themselves the following questions:

- Are the concepts addressed by the unit important for all the disciplines involved?
- Is the unit likely to help student better understand a specific discipline-based concept or idea because it has been dealt with in an interdisciplinary fashion?
- Is the material in the unit so important that it transcends discipline – based boundaries?
- Does the unit enhance students' learning processes?

The second criterion, relevance, concerns the extent to which the material and strategies used to present the lessons in the unit allow students to make meaningful cognitive or affective connections. Framed as a question, the criterion asks, Can students relate personally to the material and the delivery strategies used to teach that material?

The last criterion, cohesiveness or coherence, concerns the extent to which the activities within the lessons and the unit itself are closely linked and articulated to provide a tight fit between them.

It also concerns the extent to which the instructional strategies used are consistent with the lesson objectives and unit outcomes.

Summary

What Issues Should Be Considered When Exploring Curriculum Integration?

Regardless of the grade or subject taught, all teachers should consider the following issues:

- Validity of material. All material and units should meet every test and standard the teachers normally bring to anything they teach.
- Current curricular strengths and weaknesses.
Teachers should select organizing centers and develop units that are consistent with their own curricular strengths and interests.
- Perceived curricular needs. The first units to be developed should be those that fill an existing gap in the curriculum.
- Current programmatic strengths and weaknesses.
Some programs are naturally conducive to and supportive of specific units and centers (that is, schools that have humanities departments instead of separate social studies, art, and English departments can best support humanities – oriented units; schools where teachers are grouped into teams who teach the same groups of students in 80-minute blocks are better able to implement integrated units).
- Awareness of present curricular scope and sequence, and amount of curriculum slack. Units do not exist in isolation. They are situated in specific contexts in which important content precedes and follows them. It is important to remember the need to build horizontal relationships (across content) without sacrificing vertical relationships (across time).
- Opportunities for faculty to explore curricula.
The development of integrated units is most effective when teachers have the opportunity to behave as learners and explorers as well as designers.

Curricular integration presents significant challenges to teachers. Teachers must have enough understanding of the disciplines they teach to allow thoughtful considerations of the possible and natural relationships among those disciplines. This is difficult for many teachers who are generalists, with depth of knowledge

in only one or two disciplines other than reading and social studies. Innovative educators concerned with improving student achievement are seeking ways to create rigorous, relevant and engaging curriculum. Teachers face the additional challenge of having to know how to use the experiential and learner-centered pedagogical strategies necessary for the exploration of the relationships, concepts, and insights that are prevalent in solid integrated units..

This is contrary to prevailing instructional practices that emphasize teacher-dominated talk. As teachers face the challenges of rigid structures that make team teaching, collaborative planning, and back – to – back scheduling difficult; in addition, they sometimes suffer from lack of administrative support.

Notwithstanding the challenges, the integration of curriculum is a worthwhile and important goal. It is believed that educators will continue to experience deepening connections as they become more experienced in this area. No one approach seems preferable, indeed. Teachers can use any of these approaches at any level of education, in a single classroom or in a team approach.

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Organization of Units in Social Studies

Teaching with units is one of popular dimensions in contemporary social studies. In current educational the less interactive system transmission of knowledge model, which is one of peculiarities Armenian textbooks, is not always the effective way to guide students' learning. In contrast, teaching with units is emphasizing not only knowledge component, but logical structure of content organization, emphasizing main concepts, and using different instructional strategies carefully chosen to fit the topic. Teaching with units, when accompanied by textbooks, is also a highly effective while using standard-based teaching as has been learned in other nations using stand. Units are flexible means of organization of teaching to adapt to local circumstances and realities, while still meeting national priorities and standards .

We receive many bits of information every day in isolation, ignore most of them and store just a few in our minds. Linkages are important for meaningful learning. In social studies units can be focused on a social studies topic, several social studies standards or can integrate several subjects.

Significance, coherence and relevance are important while constructing social studies units. Significance means that the content must be important to the discipline. The unit needs to be concentrated on the nature of social studies knowledge, skills and values. According to American Association for the Advancement of Science (1993) interdisciplinary interactions connect unit ideas with prior knowledge and facilitate transfer to a wider set of experiences. Only the most critical concepts related to a topic are selected for the unit and they are taught in depth. This is the less is more philosophy, that is, when less is taught in more depth, the students are more able to learn and **retain** the knowledge and information long-term.

Coherence means that the investigative nature of social studies cuts across all parts of the unit and across the curriculum. To enhance coherence, units stress acquiring and practicing inquiry skills, emphasize enduring understanding, and provide real world applications and transfer of social studies

knowledge to the student's own social world along with its concomitant attitudes and value agreements.

Relevance means that social studies content, activities and breadth of experiences reflect students current life, future goals. Social studies content and skills are about culture, life, history, economics—all “real world things”—to make it more relevant and less abstract to the learner encourages interest and maintains commitment to the study of the topic by the learner.

The Foci of Social Studies Units

Sunal and Haas (2005) offer an excellent series of three foci for units of study in social studies. The three types of units include

- Descriptive unit,
- Thinking skills unit,
- Conceptual and thinking skills unit.

Descriptive-Focused Units

The traditional organization of social studies curriculum and textbooks has a descriptive focus and emphasizes knowledge component. Such kind of topics are useful in providing clear view of topics, but they are not good when we emphasize on making connections or applying knowledge.

Thinking Skills - Focused Units

In a unit with a thinking skills focus, the specific content learned is less important than the skills to be developed. A thinking or inquiry skill such as comparing and contrasting can be taught with almost any content. Students can compare and contrast different kingdoms, types of government. Students focus on a significant skill within a set of content. Students are more focused on how

they are learning. The weakness of solely a thinking-skills focused unit is that social studies ideas may not be covered systematically, jumping instead from concept to concept without full development of any one concept.

Conceptual and Thinking Skills – Focused Units

Units can combine social studies concepts and thinking skills with equal emphasis. A conceptual and thinking skills – focused unit works best with inquiry and investigative instructional strategies. Students work with certain content and at the same time develop skills necessary for understanding concepts. They also examine the values related to content. Teaching of such kind of unit takes more time than does the traditional approach.

Types of Units

Two types of units can be used that integrate school subjects: theme units and issue and problem solving units. Theme units cut across social studies topics and may include topics associated with other subject areas. An issues and problem solving unit attempts to solve a problem that is relevant to somebody – an individual, a group of individuals, or society as a whole.

Theme Units

Planning and development of theme units begin when meaningful integration of the selected subjects around an important theme happen. For example in our book the unit on Globalization is theme unit. This theme can be discussed in different subjects – Culture, Economics, Sociology, History, etc. So, the strength of such kind of units is its ability to make connections between

subjects and help students in developing holistic picture of the world. A weakness of this type of unit is the difficulty of focusing on significant aspects of the theme in each subject area.

Issue and Problem-Solving Units

An issue does not always have a clear or universally correct answer. Many issues are complex and not easily resolved or not resolved at all. However, students can explore such issues, identify possible solutions, examine the arguments for and against each solution, predict which solution might be best implemented and suggest possible solution. This is the study of real-life situations at its best. Such a unit is likely to have a conceptual and thinking skills focus that does emphasize skills and specific knowledge development and application. However, in issue-based or problem solving experiences, multiple perspectives may arise. Thus, students learn to intellectually wrestle with adult-type model problems and learn that the world and events are seldom black and white, nor simply right or wrong. Higher order thinking is a necessity here, inviting creativity and the examination of personal and national values, beliefs and attitudes.. Another strength of these units is that they require examining the problem or issue from a variety of viewpoints. Most issues have social, political, economic, scientific, historical and technological contexts. Such units allow students to see that life contains differences and controversies. For example, in our book the unit on Conflict Management is problem-solving unit. Students will acquire knowledge on conflicts and apply skills of conflict management. Also, they will understand conflicts as an inevitable components of democratic society.

Thus, effective teaching of social studies requires using of different types of units according to learning objectives. Units are ways of teaching social studies which are more close to real life. They help students in having interconnected picture of the world and solving different social problems.

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Methods of Assessment

There are different methods of assessment, such as selected response assessment, essay assessment, performance and product assessment, personal communication as assessment, affective assessment etc. For teachers it's very important to know the strengths and weaknesses of each method and to understand how to match methods with targets. For example, if the teacher wants to assess student's telling abilities, the best method of assessment is simply to ask him/her to tell something. There is an old story told by Aesop of a man who visited foreign lands and, when he returned to his home, could talk of little except his wonderful adventures during his travels and the great deeds he had done. One of his feats was an amazing leap he had made in a city called Rhodes. "My leap was so great", he said, "no other person could leap anywhere near that distance! Many people witnessed my leap and if you go to Rhodes they will tell you that what I say is true". "No need for witnesses", one of his listeners said, "Imagine this city is Rhodes. Now show us how far you can jump". What can be inferred from this story? If there is an easy and direct way to assess, teachers should choose that one. For choosing the best method teachers need to be acquainted with all of them. So, the following subchapter describes different assessment methods and ways of designing assessment devices by teachers themselves according to their content and audience.

Selected Response Assessment

Every teacher knows and uses paper and pencil tests. In the Armenian educational system it was common to use unstructured responses item, because as a rule, a written exam was essay writing, or answering open questions. But during reforms process teachers also began to widely use multiple-choice items, True/False items, matching exercises and short answer fill-in items. As all this is very familiar for our teachers, we will not concentrate on their descriptions. But because of perceiving teachers as assessment developers we will follow Stiggins's advice on how to design reliable and valid selected response assessment devices (Stiggins, 2005, p. 83-114).

The steps in the assessment development

Described in the simplest form, the selected response assessment is developed in three steps, each of which requires the application of special professional competence:

1. Develop an assessment plan or blueprint that identifies an appropriate sample of achievement.
2. Identify the specific elements of knowledge, understanding and reasoning to be assessed.
3. Transform those elements into test items.

Step 1. Preparing a blueprint

Building a test without a plan is like building a house without blueprint. Two things are going to happen and both are bad. Construction is going to take much longer than you want and the final product is not going to meet your standards. Plan well and the test will almost automatically develop itself. Fail to plan and you will struggle. In fact the practice of test blueprinting will save you a lot of time. Besides making test development easier and more efficient, test blueprinting offers an opportunity for teachers and students to clarify achievement expectations, to sharpen their vision of

* Cited from Johnson and Johnson (1996).

what it means to be successful. But planning absolutely requires that the test developer understand both the underlying structure of the knowledge students are to master and the nuances of reasoning, if that is part of the focus of the assessment. Without this clarity and depth of vision it will be impossible to develop good assessments.

Teachers can use as blueprint *tables of test specifications* To explain how the table of test specifications works, we must first consider the individual assessment exercise or test question. Any question requires respondents to do two things: (1) gain access to a specific piece of information (either from memory or reference materials), and (2) use that knowledge to carry out a cognitive operation (solve some kind of problem). The table of test specifications takes advantage of this combination of knowledge retrieval and its application to permit you to develop a plan that promises to sample both in a predetermined manner. The Table below is a simple example of such a blueprint.

Content	Know and Understand	Comparative Reasoning	Classification Reasoning	Total
Alternative Forms of Government	9 questions	5	1	15
Structure of RA Government	4	5	1	10
Rights and Responsibilities of Citizens	7	5	3	15
Total	20	15	5	40

Sample table of test specifications

For this example, assume that you are teaching a class in “Civic Education” or “State and Low”. In this table we find our plan for a unit test. The test is to include 40 questions worth one point each. You choose this number, because you feel (a) you need this many questions to adequately sample the knowledge and reasoning students need to master, and (b) your students can attempt all 40 in the available time.

On the left you subdivide the content into three basic categories: Alternative Forms of Government, Structure of RA Government, and Rights and Responsibilities of Citizens. Each category contains many elements of knowledge within it, some of which you regard as sufficiently important to be tested – to transform into the items later. The last column includes 15 questions covering knowledge of Forms, 10 on Structure, and 15 on Rights and responsibilities. These numbers reflect the teacher’s sense of relative importance of these three basic categories of material.

The difference in the number of items assigned to each category might reflect any or all of the following:

- Amount of instructional time spent on each
- Amount of material in each category
- Relative importance of material in each category for later learning
- Important relationships among various ideas.

This is an important part of the art of classroom assessment. As a teacher, your special insights about the nature and capabilities of your students and the nature and amount of material you want them to master must guide you in setting these priorities. Given this particular body of material, as a teacher/ test developer, you must ask: What should be my areas of greatest emphasis now if I am

to prepare students for important concepts and general principles they will confront later in their education?

After specifying row and column totals, you need only spread the numbers of questions into the cells of the table so that they add up to the row and column totals. This will generate a plan to guide you in writing a set of test questions that will systematically sample both content and reasoning priorities as established.

How do you decide how many and what rows and columns to include in a table of test specifications? There are no rigid rules. You can include as many rows and columns as make sense for your particular unit and test. You should consider the following factors with respect to blueprint categories for content:

- You should deconstruct state standards into the classroom level achievement targets that set students up for success on state assessments.
- Look for natural subdivisions in the material presented in a text and accepted by experts in the field, such as chapters or major sections within chapters. Each chapter or section may become a row in your table of specifications.
- Use subdivisions of content that are likely to make sense to students as a result of their studies. Ultimately, you want them to see the vision, too.

The patterns of reasoning (columns) in your test blueprint should have the following characteristics:

- Patterns should have clear labels and underlying meanings both for you and for students.
- Again, patterns taught and learned should relate to those specified in state achievement standards.
- Categories should be so familiar and comfortable to you that you can almost automatically pose questions that demand student thinking in those terms.
- Each category should represent kinds of reasoning and problem solving that occur in the real world.
- All categories should translate into student-friendly terms, including description and examples.

Published text materials may supply the content categories for you, but you probably will have to establish the patterns of reasoning.

Advantages of making tables of specifications are evident:

1. They define success for students, giving them more control over their own fate. So teachers should share their expectations with students.
2. Clearly written expectations in the forms of tables set limit on teacher's accountability for students' learning. It is not necessary for students to know every single fact about the subject, rather students need to know and understand specific parts and know how to reason using this information.
3. Once your overall plan is assembled, it becomes possible for you to develop more than one form of the same test. This can be very useful when you need to protect test security, such as when you need another form for students who must retake the test. You can develop two or more tests that are the same in covering content and reasoning patterns.

Step 2: Selecting material to assess

After developing a table of specifications you must select the specific and individual elements of knowledge and reasoning around which you will create test items. In the sample table the cell

crossing Alternative Forms of Government with Know and Understand requires the construction of the nine test questions. The next question is: How do I decide which of the huge number of facts, concepts and general principles about alternative forms of government to include in the assessment?

There are two factors to consider in answering such a question: (1) coverage of the full range of material in the unit, and (2) the relative importance of the elements within.

1. Coverage of material: as previously stated, any set of assessment exercises really only represents a sample of all questions you could ask if the assessment were infinitely long. Clearly if you were to test student mastery of every aspect of civic education, we'd be talking about an impossibly long test! The most efficient way to prevent this problem (and to create tests that fit into reasonable time limits) is to include questions that cover as much of the *important* material as time will permit. Then infer that each student's score on the sample also reflects level of mastery of the entire domain of knowledge and understanding sampled. A student who answers 80 percent of the questions on the assessment correct probably has mastered about 80 percent of the material in the entire domain sampled. So teachers must select a sample of all possible *important* elements of knowledge and understanding. Please, see Figure on Excellent Representativeness in the chapter on Validity.

2. The relative importance of the elements: but who decide what is important and how they do it? If you are to develop the assessment, you do! If the textbook publisher developed the test and you are considering using it, you must establish your classroom achievement standards and must evaluate the text embedded test to see if it accurately represents them. If the book covers more than students can master during your time with them, you must select from among the array of possibilities what to emphasize.

Capture elements you wish to test in the form of clearly stated sentences that reflect important elements of content and stipulate the kind of cognitive operation respondents must carry out. In the test development field, such statements are called propositions. As you shall see, propositions save you time in assessment development. To collect these prepositions begin by reviewing the material you will sample on the test, keeping your table of specifications close at hand. So in our example, you need a total of 20 Knowledge and Understanding test items (bottom of column 1). Nine of these must arise from content related to Alternative Forms of Government. So as you review this material, you seek out and write down, say, 15 to 20 items that capture important facts, concepts or enduring understandings about Alternative Forms of Government that you think every student should know and understand. Stiggins (2005) recommends collecting about twice as many propositions as teachers will need to fill in their final quota of test items. That way, teacher can replace some items later or if he/she wants to develop two parallel forms of the same test, active ingredients will already exist. Collected propositions must reflect the most important material.

As you collect propositions, use clearly stated sentences. For example:

In democracies the power to govern is secured by vote of the people.

As you have written your propositions for the cell of the first column of the Table, move on to the next column, this time crossing the content categories with Comparative Reasoning. Note from the blueprint that you need 5 of these in each cell, for a total of 15. For Comparative Reasoning propositions have different structure, such as:

Difference between Marzpet and City Major is that the last position is elective.

And so you proceed through the nine cells of the table, writing out propositions. In effect, you're creating a list of elements of the material that is important for students to learn. When you wish to assess your students' ability to use their knowledge to figure things out, to reason – your challenge is to state propositions reflecting important learning that you may not have explicitly covered in class. That is they may represent the kinds of comparative inferences you want them to be able to draw using their own knowledge of “State and Law” and their understanding of comparison – they apply the concepts of similarity and difference. To test their ability to reason you must present cognitive challenges at assessment time that demand more than mastery of fundamental knowledge.

To reach this goal, items must present a problem for which students (1) have had the opportunity to master appropriate prerequisite knowledge but (2) have not had the opportunity to use it to solve this particular problem. The assessment exercise challenges them to reason it out right there on the spot. The aim of these propositions is to convey more than retrieval from memory, when the goal of instruction is more than just knowing. If you want students to analyze and compare, you must write propositions representing inferences you expect them to make. It is not acceptable for them to have solved the problem before and memorized the answer for later regurgitation.

For engaging students in the assessment process:

- During instruction, have students jot down and share propositions they think are important.
- At the end of a day of instruction, engage students partners in listing the important propositions of the day.
- Provide students with some sample propositions, along with the table of test specifications, and have them practice fitting each proposition into its proper cell in the table.

All of these provide students with focused practice.

Step 3: Building test items from propositions

Once you have a proposition in hand, you can spin any kind of selected response item out of it that you wish. Here's an example:

The executive and legislative branches of RA government differ in that the latter is elected directly by the people.

As a true/false question: *Members of both branches are elected directly by the people.*

As a fill-in item: *The executive and legislative branches of RA government ----- in that the latter is elected directly by the people.*

As a multiple-choice item: Election of members of the executive and legislative branches differs in what way?

- a. Legislators are restricted by term limits; executives are not
- b. Legislators are elected directly; executives are not
- c. Legislators are appointed, but executives are elected.

General Guidelines for all formats

- Items clearly written and focused
- Question posed
- Avoid difficult grammatical structures
- Irrelevant clues eliminated
- Items reviewed by colleague
- Scoring key double checked

Guidelines for the multiple-choice items

- Item stem poses a direct question
- Repetition eliminated from response options
- One best or correct answer
- Response options are brief and parallel
- Number of response options offered fits item context

Guidelines for the true/false items

- Statement is entirely true or false as presented

Guidelines for matching exercises

- Clear directions given
- List of items to be matched is brief
- List consists of homogeneous entries
- Response options are brief and parallel
- Extra response options offered

Guidelines for fill-in items

- A direct question is posed
- One blank is needed to respond
- Length of blank is not a clue.

At the end Stiggins (2005) offers mixed formats together and uses interpretive exercises, for making better tests.

Student involvement in Selected Response Assessment

Here are ideas for student-involved assessment, suggested by Stiggins (2005):

- Develop a table of test specifications for a final unit test before ever teaching the unit. A clear vision of the valued outcomes will result and you can tailor instruction to promote student success.
- Share a copy of that plan with every student. Review it carefully at the beginning of the unit and explain your expectations at that time. Now students and teacher share the same vision.
- Involve students in the process of devising the test plan, or involve them from time to time in checking back in the blueprint (1) to see together - as partners – if you might need adjustments in the test plan and/or (2) to chart your progress together.
- Once you have the test plan completed, develop a few test items each day as the unit unfolds. Such items certainly would reflect timely instructional priorities. Further, at the end of the unit, the final exam would be all done and ready to go! This eliminates the last minute anxiety of test development and improves test quality.
- Involve students in writing practice test items. Think of the benefits: students will have to evaluate the importance of various elements in content, and they will have to become proficient in using the kinds of reasoning and problem solving valued in your classroom. Developing sample test items provides high fidelity practice in doing these things.
- Ask students to find places of items in blueprint table cells and answer them.
- Have students use the test blueprint to predict how they are going to do each part of the test before they take it. Then have them analyze how they did, part-by-part, after taking it. If the first test is for practice, such an analysis will provide valuable information to help them plan their preparation for the real thing.
- Use tables of specifications to communicate among teachers about instructional priorities, so as to arrive at a clearer understanding of how those priorities fit together across instructional levels of the school building.
- Have students work in teams, with each team given responsibility for finding ways to help everyone in class score high in one cell, row or column of a table of specifications.

Assessing through cooperative learning

Founders of cooperative learning theory, the Johnson brothers, developed a very powerful procedure for taking selected response assessments, which has many advantages, because it assesses students as they are learning. A further description of this method that we greatly recommend is from the book by Johnson and Johnson (1996) "Meaningful and Manageable Assessment through Cooperative learning".

Tests may be given both to assess and increase student learning. There are two advantages of cooperative learning groups in administering tests. **First**, allowing students to work together before an assessment can level the playing field by enabling students to compare understandings and ensure that they all have the same background knowledge to prepare for the assessment. **Second**, following the assessment allowing students to work in groups immediately (a) allows each group member to discover what he or she did and did not understand, (b) allows each group member to discover where the information required to answer the questions is in the course materials, and (c) allows the group to provide remediation to members who did not understand the course content covered in the test.

The sequence of using cooperative learning groups in testing is (1) students work together in cooperative learning groups to review the material to be covered in the test, (2) each student takes the test individually, and (3) students retake the test in the cooperative learning group.

Students are assigned to cooperative learning groups that are heterogeneous in terms of knowledge and ability. The groups study together a certain amount of time (for example, all week). After that students take the test individually, making two copies of their answers. One answer sheet they hand in to the teacher (who then scores the answers). The students keep the second answer sheet. After all members have finished the test, the group meets to take the test again. Their **task** is to answer each question correctly. The **cooperative goal** is for all group members to understand the material covered by the test. For any answer that they disagree about or are unsure of, they are required to find the page and paragraph in the text that contains the answer. The teacher randomly observes the groups to check that they are following the procedure.

The GIG procedure for giving tests: You should frequently give selected response assessment to assess (a) how much each student knows and (b) what students still need to learn. Whenever you give a test, cooperative-learning groups can serve as bookends by preparing members to take the test and providing a setting in which students review the test. Using the following procedure will result in (a) optimizing each student's preparation for the test, (b) making each student accountable to peers for his/her performance on the test, (c) assessing how much each student knows, (d) assessing what students still need to learn, (e) providing students with immediate clarification of what they did not understand or learn, (f) providing students with immediate remediation of what they did not learn, (g) preventing arguments between you and your students over which answer are correct and why. The procedure is:

1. Students prepare for and review for the test in cooperative learning groups.

Students meet in their cooperative learning groups and are given (a) study questions and (b) class time to prepare for the examination. The task is for students to discuss each study question and come to consensus about its answer. The cooperative goal is to ensure that all group members understand how to answer the study questions correctly. If students disagree on the answer to any study questions, they must find the page number and paragraph in the resource material explaining the relevant information or procedures. When the study/review time is up, the students give each other encouragement for doing well on the upcoming test.

2. Each student takes the test individually, making two copies of his/her answers. Students submit one set of answer to teacher to grade and keep one set for the group discussion.

Each student takes the test individually. The task and individual goal is to answer each question correctly. Students submit one copy of the answers to teacher. Teacher scores the answers and evaluates student performance against a preset criterion of excellence. Students keep one copy for their group discussion. After all group members have finished the test, the group meets to take the test again.

3. Students retake the test in their cooperative learning groups.

Students meet in their cooperative learning groups and retake the test. The task is to answer each question correctly. The **cooperative goal** is to ensure that all group members understand the material and procedures covered by the test. Members do so by (a) reaching consensus on the answer for each question and the rationale or procedure underlying the answer and (b) ensuring that all members can explain the answer and the rationale or procedure. The procedure is for members to:

- Compare their answers on the first question.
- If there is agreement, one member explains the rationale or procedure underlying the question and the group moves on the question two.
- If there is disagreement, members find the page number and paragraph in the resource materials explaining the relevant information or procedures. The group is responsible for ensuring that all members understand the material they missed on the test. If necessary, group members assign review homework to each other. When all members agree on the answer and believe other members comprehend the material, the group moves on to question two.
- The learning groups repeat this procedure until they have covered all test questions.
- The group members celebrate how hard they have worked in learning the material and how successful they were on test.

Weekly group tests and individual final exam: teachers can use this procedure to maximize students' higher-level reasoning and long-term retention of knowledge. They can assign students to cooperative learning groups of four members and have them complete their assignments together all week. The groups should be heterogeneous in terms of their knowledge and abilities. At the end of the week examination is given.

Each cooperative group is divided into two pairs. Each pair takes the test, conferring on the answer to each question. The **task** is to correctly answer each question. The **cooperative goal** is to have one answer for each question that both agree upon and both can explain. They cannot proceed until they agree on the answer. Once the two pairs are finished, the cooperative group of four meets and retakes the test. Their **task** is to answer each question correctly. The **cooperative goal** is for all group members to understand the material covered by the test. Group members confer on each question. On any question to which two pairs have different answers or members are unsure of the answer, they find the page number and paragraph in the textbook where the answer is explained. Each group is responsible for ensuring that all members understand the material they messed on the test. If necessary, group members assign review homework to each other. The teacher randomly observes each group to ensure that they are answering the questions correctly. Each cooperative group then hands in one answer sheet with a list of all members. Each member signs the answer sheet to verify that (a) he/she understands the content and (b) all other group members understand the content covered by the test. All group members are given equal credit for successfully passing the test.

At the end of grading period each student takes an individual final examination. If any student scores below a preset criterion (such as 90 percent), then the cooperative group meets and reviews the content with the student until the student can successfully pass the test. This rarely happens as the group members have verified each week that they all are learning the assigned content.

Essay Assessment

Armenian teachers are widely using essay assessment not only in the language arts classroom, but also in social studies classrooms. This method helps them to understand how students think, feel, reason, connect learned information with unknown etc. This is a very good method, but with some potential problems: the danger is that two teachers subjectively judging the same piece of student work can assign different scores. This is evidence of inconsistency, of unreliability. A difference in scores may indicate that the essay assessment produces unreliable results. But teachers can develop essay assessment criteria that is more objective and reliable.

Let's follow Stiggins's (2005, p. 121-137) advice for creating valid and reliable essay assessment devices. Of course, information will not be brand new for teachers, but I hope, everybody can find useful guidelines for him/herself.

The unreliability can be eliminated, suggests Stiggins; if the researchers had helped the scorers achieve consistency by developing and using essay assessment appropriately. In this case, that would mean creating clear and appropriate scoring guidelines and training the teachers to apply those criteria consistently. When scorers are prepared properly, scoring can be very reliable: assessments that rely on teachers' professional judgments to evaluate student achievement can produce valid and reliable results leading to effective instruction if we anticipate personal problems and work to eliminate them. In other words, subjectivity of assessment need not be a source of inaccuracy.

In the case of essay assessment, as with any form of assessment, the responsibility for avoiding problems and for ensuring quality rests basically on the teacher. Those who thoroughly comprehend the content and patterns of reasoning to be assessed are in an excellent position to plan exercises and scoring procedures that fit the valued learning targets. It is only through developing and using strong exercises and appropriate scoring criteria that you may avoid errors of measurement attributable to evaluator or rater bias.

Essay assessments can be valid for assessing knowledge, reasoning, skills, products and some affects. Most experts advise caution in using essay responses to assess student mastery of subject matter knowledge; that is when the targets are specific facts or concepts students are to learn. The primary reason is that we have better options at our disposal for tapping this kind of target. Selected response assessment formats provide a more efficient means of assessment that, at the same time, allow for a more precise sampling of the achievement domain.

Selected response test formats are more efficient than essays in this case for two reasons. (1) You can ask more multiple-choice questions than essay questions per unit of testing time because multiple-choice response time is so much shorter. So, you can provide a broader sample of performance per unit of time with selected response items than with essay exercise. (2) Scoring selected response items is much faster than scoring essays. Nevertheless, you can use the essay format for assessing student mastery of content knowledge in the ability to relate ideas or understand different single facts in the framework of a big idea. Here is an example of an essay assessment question from "Applied Economics": *Describe factors of increasing product demand. Be sure to include all key factors (10 points).*

Essay assessment helps us understand whether the student is able to connect discrete information, and to integrate new knowledge with existing understandings.

A real strength of written responses resides in their ability to provide windows into student reasoning proficiency. At assessment time we can present complex problems that ask learners to bring together their subject matter knowledge, their understanding and reasoning skills to find a solution. In instances where we cannot directly observe knowledge application or can't see the mental process of reasoning unfold, we can ask students to describe the results of their reasoning in their

essays. From this we infer the state of their understanding and their ability to use it in problem-solving contexts. We can ask them to analyze, compare, draw inferences, and/or think critically in virtually any subject matter area. Furthermore we can pose problems that require integrating material from two or more subjects and/or applying more than one pattern of reasoning. The key question here would be: Do students know how and when to use the knowledge they have at their disposal to reason and solve problems?

Remember, however, the keys to success in assessing student reasoning with essays are the same as the keys to success with selected response:

- Assessors must possess a highly refined vision of each relevant reasoning pattern.
- Assessors must know how to translate that vision into clear, focused essay exercises and proper scoring criteria.
- The exercises must present problems to students that are new at the time of the assessment and students must figure out a response on the spot.

Writing essays can be assessed as product. Samples of students' writing represent original written constructions, and teachers can evaluate them in terms of the demonstrated written proficiency. But in this context they must be sure not to confound matters of the content of a student's response with their ability to write well. They are not the same. When we evaluate writing proficiency, we center on matters of *form*. Our criteria reflect standards related to word choice, sentence fluency, organization, mechanics and the like. These are important. However, in the essay assessment context, it is the expression of ideas, the *content* of the response that comes under the microscope. We establish exercise-specific criteria that reflect the students' demonstration of content mastery and the quality of the reasoning presented. In any essay teachers can evaluate either or both form and content, it depends on the purpose of assessment.

Developing essay assessment

The steps of essay assessment development according to Stiggins (2005) are:

1. Assessment planning
2. Exercise development
3. Developing essay-scoring procedures.

Step 1: Assessment planning

The challenge as always, is to begin with clearly articulated achievement targets. In this case the target will reflect both the components of knowledge and the patterns of reasoning respondents must master. Consequently, once again we have the option of starting with a table of test specifications. A table of specifications for essay tests is like that used for selected response assessments in some ways, and different in others. The similarities lie in the basic framework. The Table below is an example of such a blueprint for an essay test covering material on a series of short stories read in class.

Content	Numbers of points			
	Know	Compare	Evaluate	Total
Setting	5	15	10	30
Plot	10	10	10	30
Characters	0	20	20	40
Total	15	45	40	100

Sample table of test specifications

As a developer of such a table, the teacher must specify the categories of knowledge respondents will use on one axis and the patterns of reasoning the teacher expects on the other. Row and column totals, and therefore entries in the cells of the table, once again represent the relative emphasis assigned to each. However, with the essay table of specifications cells each contain the number of points on the test that the teacher has assigned to that content-reasoning combination, not the number of individual test items, as was the case with selected-response. When the teacher actually constructs the test, he/she might spread those points over one or more exercises associated with each cell.

Given 100 points for the entire exam, this plan obviously emphasizes the understanding of characters relative to the other two categories requiring that respondents rely on that understanding to compare and evaluate. Points for each exercise depend on the importance of tested content-reasoning combination for purposes of the lesson.

Step 2: Exercise development

One of the advantages often listed for essay test relative to other test formats is that exercises are much easier and take less time to develop. But it doesn't mean that essay questions can be unusual and complicated, or too laconic to understand. A common mistake teachers make is trying to turn an essay exercise into a demonstration of their creativity as a test developer and suggesting to students very strange formulations.

To succeed with this assessment format, we must invest thoughtful preparation time in writing exercises that challenge respondents by describing a single complete and novel task. Sound exercises do three things:

- Specify the knowledge students are supposed to command in preparing a response. For example: *During the term, we have discussed evolution of enlightenment in Armenian literature and political situation in XIX century.*
- Specify the kinds of reasoning or problem solving respondents are to carry out. Be clear what respondents are to write out. For example: *During the term, we have discussed evolution of enlightenment in Armenian literature and political situation in XIX century. Analyze these two dimensions of Armenian culture and describe three examples of when literature and politics may have influenced each other.*
- Point the direction to an appropriate response without giving away the answer. Good exercises literally list the key elements of a good response without cueing the unprepared examinee on how to succeed. For example: *As we have discussed Armenian Enlightenment was greatly influenced by French thinkers. Explain difference of theories of Armenian and French thinkers of Enlightenment.*

Stiggins also offers for exercise development an idea of interpretative exercise. It can be a chart, graph, table or map that students need to explore and draw conclusions concerning certain problem. For example, it can be the map of Avarair battle and question: *Discuss weak and strong points of Armenian strategy during this battle. Why do you think Armenians won?*

You saw a good example of such an exercise in the section on targets – uninhabited island, suggested by Joyce.

Step 3: Developing essay scoring procedures

Many teachers score written responses by applying “floating standards”, when they wait to get responses to decide what they wanted. This represents the ultimate in unsound assessment practice, because it destroys both the validity and reliability of the assessment. But students can succeed if they know what it means to succeed. State the meaning of success up front, design instruction to help students succeed, and devise and use assessments that reflect that vision of success. That includes formulating essay scoring criteria in advance and holding yourself and your students accountable for attaining those standards.

The scoring of an essay response represents a classic example of one of the most important reasoning patterns: evaluative reasoning. In evaluative reasoning one makes a judgment about something and defends it through the logical application of specific criteria. When a student writes an essay, we can judge three different qualities of that work. We can evaluate whether the work conveys accurate knowledge and understanding, uses that knowledge in a manner that represents sound reasoning, or manifests the characteristics of effective written communication. The first two focuses on substance, while the latter centers on matters of form. The key to student success is to be sure they know which set of criteria will come into play in any particular assessment and that they be provided with lots of guided practice in hitting those targets during instruction leading up to the final assessment of learning.

Typically evaluative judgments about essay quality are expressed in terms of the number of points students attain. There are two acceptable way to do this: the checklist and scoring rubrics. Scoring guides in essay assessment should be exercise specific. That is teachers create a separate and specific scoring guide for each new exercise, being sure to focus on keys to success in that specific context.

The checklist: teachers award points when specific ingredients appear in students’ answers. For example in the exercise asking to describe styles of composing poems, students earn 2 points for each mentioned and correctly explained style and only half point if style is only mentioned without explanation. Also student’s answer can be awarded 2 points for explanations with examples etc.

Essay scoring rubrics: In this case achievement is defined in terms of one or more performance continua. For example, a three-point rating scale might define three levels of mastery of the required material and teachers would apply the scale to each student’s response. Here’s an example:

- | | |
|----|---|
| 3 | The response is clear, focused and accurate. Relevant points are made (in terms of the content expectations or kinds of reasoning sought by the exercise) with good support (derived from the content to be used, again as spelled out in the exercise). Good connections are drawn and important insights are evident. |
| 2 | The answer is clear and somewhat focused, but not compelling. Support of points made is limited. Connections are fuzzy, leading to few important insights. |
| 1. | The response either misses the point, contains inaccurate information, or otherwise demonstrates lack of mastery of the material. Points are unclear, support is missing, and/or no insights are included. |

Some teachers devise such strong rubrics to apply in a “holistic” manner. Other times teachers devise multiple “analytical” scales for the same essay, permitting them to evaluate the content coverage of the response separately from other important features. Rubrics are well presented in Armenian literature (created by IREX projects), so teachers can refer to those books for learning, if they need) how to create rubrics*.

* For developing rubrics see “Improving In-Service Teacher Training: An Educators Handbook”, 2003, Yerevan, IREX; “Guide for Seminars: Handbook for Curriculum Development Specialists”, 2002, Yerevan, IREX.

Guidelines for essay scoring

- Set realistic expectations and performance standards that are consistent with instruction and that promise students some measure of success if they are prepared.
- Check scoring guides against a few real responses to see if any last-minute adjustments are needed.
- Refer back to scoring guidelines regularly during scoring to maintain consistency.
- Score all responses to one exercise before moving on to next exercise. This does two things: it promotes consistency in your application of standards, and speeds up the scoring process.
- Score all responses to one exercise in one sitting without interruption to keep a clear focus on standards.
- Evaluate responses separately for matters of content (knowledge mastery and reasoning) and matters of form (writing proficiency etc.) They require the application of different criteria.
- Provide feedback in the form of points and written commentary if possible.
- If possible, keep the identity of respondent anonymous when scoring. This keeps your knowledge of their prior performance from influencing current judgments.
- Although it is often difficult to arrange, try to have independent qualified readers score the same papers. It will help reduce subjectiveness of judgments.

Student involvement in essay assessment

Here are ideas for student-involved assessment, suggested by Stiggins (2005):

- As with selected response specifications tables, essay test plans can help focus students from the beginning of learning. The simplest version of this is to share the test blueprint at the outset. But beyond this, you might engage them as partners in creating the table itself by discussing what facets of the topic of study they think they might like to learn the most about. Be careful here, however. As a master of the domain to be learned as described in the districts curriculum, you are expected to know what is important to learn. But within this responsibility, if you have a room for a bit of flexibility, weave in students' interests. The motivational benefits can be helpful.

- Present students with unlabeled essay exercise and have them practice fitting them into the content and reasoning cells of the tables of specifications.

- You can engage students in devising practice essay exercise like those that will appear on a future examination. This will help them learn to center on important content and will require that they become sufficiently comfortable with your valued patterns of reasoning so that they can build them into practice exercises. If they write such exercises, and trade with classmates and write practice responses, both you and they gain access to useful information on what they are and are not mastering on their journey to meeting standards.

- Have students join in on the process of writing sample exercises. To do so, they will need to begin to sharpen their focus on the intended knowledge and reasoning targets – as they do this, good teaching is happening! Be careful, though, these might best be used as examples for practice. Remember to assess student reasoning, the exercises that actually appear on a test must present novel problems.

- Give students some sample exercises and have them evaluate their quality as test exercises, given the test blueprint.

- You can provide sample exercises and have students practice developing scoring guides for them. Further, they can practice scoring each other's practice responses to those exercises. By repeating this process as you proceed through the unit of study, you can provide students with opportunities to watch themselves improving. By the time they get to that final exam, they will know and will be ready to apply the secrets to their own success. Then this represents sharply focused instruction and a basis for very strong achievement.

- Have students play a role in developing the scoring criteria for some sample exercises. Give them, for example, an excellent response and a poor-quality response to a past essay exercise and have them figure out the differences.

- Bring students into the actual scoring process, thus spreading the work over more shoulders! Form scoring teams, one for each exercise on a test. Have them develop scoring criteria under your watchful eye. Offer them advice as needed to generate appropriate criteria. Then have them actually score some essays, which you double check. Discuss differences in scores assigned. Students find this kind of workshop format very engaging.

- Have students predict their performance in each cell in the table of specifications or objectives and then compare their prediction with the actual score. Were they in touch with their own achievement?

- Save essays and scoring criteria for reuse. A personal computer can help with this. Use essays anonymously.

- Exchange, trade, or compare tables of specifications and/or exercises and scoring criteria with other teachers for developing better assessment devices.

Assessing through cooperative learning

As for selected response assessment also for essay assessment the Johnson brothers developed a very useful procedure described below (Johnson and Johnson, 1996). The authors advise for lessons that include students writing an essay, report, poem, story, or review of what they have read, to use cooperative writing and editing pairs.

Tasks: Write a composition and edit other students' compositions.

Criteria for success: A well-written composition by each student. Depending on the instructional objectives, the compositions may be evaluated for grammar, punctuation, organization, content, or other criteria determined by the teacher.

Cooperative goal: All group members must verify that each member's composition is perfect according to the criteria set by teacher. Students receive an individual score on the quality of their compositions. Teacher can also give a group score based on the total number of errors made by the pair (in their two compositions).

Individual accountability: Each student writes his/her own composition.

Procedure:

1. The teacher assigns students to pairs with at least one good reader and writer in each pair.
2. Student A describes to student B what he or she is planning to write. Student B listens carefully, probes with a set of questions, and outlines student A's composition. The written outline is given to student A.
3. This procedure is reversed with student B describing what he/she is going to write and student A listening and completing an outline of student B's composition, which is then given to student B.
4. The students research individually the material they need to write their compositions, keeping an eye out for material useful to their partner.

5. The two students work together to write the first paragraph of each composition to ensure that they both have a clear start of their compositions.
6. The students write their compositions individually.
7. When completed the students proofread each other's compositions, making corrections in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, language usage, topic sentence usage, and other aspects of writing specified by teacher. Students also give each other suggestions for revision.
8. The students revise their compositions, making all of the suggested revisions.
9. The two students then reread each other's compositions and signed their names (indicating that they guarantee that no errors exist in the composition).

While the students work, the teacher monitors the pairs, intervening where appropriate to help students master the needed writing and cooperative skills. When students complete their compositions, students discuss how effectively they worked together (listing the specific actions they engaged in to help each other), plan what behaviors they are going to emphasize in the next writing pair, and thank each other for the help and assistance received.

Performance and Product Assessment

Performance and product assessments involve students in activities that require them actually to demonstrate performance of certain skills or to create products that meet certain standards of quality (Stiggins, 2005). A performance test is a test that requires the student to demonstrate a targeted behavior. The term was originally used for a test that required the examinee to perform one or more operations under observation and under standard conditions (Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999). Performance tests may be used to assess many kinds of interactions with other people, with equipment or machines, or with situations. Production task is a standardized task that requires the examinee to produce something. Production task may involve different products, such as research paper, painting, exhibit, project etc. Often a given task calls for both performance and a product (Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999).

Teachers should consider performance and product assessment only when there is time to conduct it. It is a labor-intensive method (Stiggins, 2005). The more such tasks you need to administer, the longer the per student time cost will be and the less feasible this method will be. One solution to a time crunch is to involve more observers and evaluators. Sometimes evaluators can be students. Student-involved performance and product assessment can take your students right inside their learning so they can self assess and remain aware of and in control of their own progress over time.

Developing performance and product assessment

We'll describe steps in preparing performance and production tasks according Ward and Murray-Ward (1999, p. 146-161). They suggest the following steps:

1. Identify the purpose (target) of the assessment.
2. Determine which tasks are to be used – that is, what the product or performance is to be.
3. Decide under what conditions the task is to be performed.
4. Decide how many scorers will be used and what their qualifications will be.
5. Prepare instructions for the examinees, examiners, and scorers.

6. Have the task reviewed and modify them as necessary.

Step 1: Identify the purpose of the assessment. As with all assessments, you must first identify your purpose, define the target, both to yourself and your students. Remember that the purpose drives all of the other decisions educators must make when selecting and using any assessment. As a rule such assessments reflect simple and complex skills (such as writing a complaint, negotiating with others, solving problem, identifying difficulties in the community and trying to solve them etc.)

Step 2: Determine which tasks are to be used. Tasks should be relevant to the content and skills to be assessed, and representative of the content and skills. Furthermore, any procedure you use for any assessment purpose, other than a rough estimation of skills mastered, must be based on a standardized situation and set of instructions, so that all examinees are assigned the same task and scored by the same criteria. Otherwise, there is no way the scores may be interpreted either across examinees or in reference to a standard. If one person builds a mousetrap and another paints a picture, or if one person is put into a stressful situation and another is asked to prepare an income tax return, it is difficult to score the products on a common scale.

Sometimes, when you need to develop a number of tasks – for example, if you want to use alternative but comparable tasks for different classes – it is a good idea to prepare task specifications, which provide instructions for creating the tasks.

The figure below is an example of a set of specifications for a writing task. The “Performance objective” tells what student behavior the item will be directed toward. The description of the stimulus indicates what should be in the instructions and how they should be stated. Then, the conditions under which the task is to be administered are specified. Finally, information about the scoring procedures is provided. Although you may not always write such complete specifications for your production and performance items, you need to have all this information well in hand when you are preparing them.

Performance objective: Write a narrative based on personal experiences, interviews or both

Stimulus: The prompt will instruct students to write a narrative paper based on their own experience, real or imagined, or on the experience of someone they know well.

Conditions

1. To be written under quiet conditions in 35 minutes in a regular class period.
2. A separate sheet of paper is provided for making rewriting notes that will not be scored.
3. Students are allowed to use a dictionary.
4. Directions are presented to students both orally and in writing.
5. Directions may not be amplified.
6. Students will be told when only 5 minutes of testing time remains.

Scoring procedures

Type of scoring: 4-point scale for each of three domains: content, organization, and conventions

Scorers: Two teachers trained in the scoring procedures

Scoring standards

A sample of papers will be selected randomly and each paper will be scored by two raters.

Papers for which there is a discrepancy will be discussed, and a consensus will be reached as to the score.

Three papers at each score level for each domain will be selected to use as anchor papers.

Example of Specifications for a writing sample

Step 3: Decide under what conditions the task is to be performed. Decisions must be made about the setting, time limits, availability of various aids, method of presentation, and so on. Is the task to be done at home or in class? Are there to be time limits? What materials are to be used? In Example specifications you can see conditions for that particular writing task.

Step 4: Decide number and qualifications of scorers. For many classroom assessments, the only possible scorer is the teacher. But at least two scorers are preferable and it may be that you can work out an arrangement with one or more other teachers to cooperate in the scoring. Teachers' aides or other school personnel might help with the scoring of some of the performance and product assessments if they are trained and carefully monitored. For school wide assessments, the scorings may be handled by a specially selected and trained team of teachers.

Step 5: Prepare instructions for the examinees, examiners and scorers. The instructions to the students should describe the task unambiguously. Students should be told what the scoring criteria will be – especially, which, if any, factors will not be considered. Often it is better to write the instructions after you develop the scoring criteria. When you know what the scoring criteria will be, as you will when you have had experience in scoring, you may even give students a copy of scoring rubrics.

Instructions for the examiner could describe under what conditions the task is to be presented, how the task is to be presented, and how to handle questions. If other teachers help to monitor the test, there should also be instructions about what comments may and may not be made to students. It is very important that all students take the test under the same conditions. This means that neither the teacher nor anyone else could provide help to some students that is not provided to everyone. The following guidelines are commonly used for testing of all types.

Guidelines for examiners

The examiner may

- Reread a portion of the instructions
- Encourage students to continue to work on a task
- Quietly redirect the students attention back to the task

The examiner may not

- Reword the instructions
- Provide another demonstration
- Provide verbal or behavioral clues about the quality of student performance

Step 6. Have the tasks reviewed and modify them as necessary. You may be perfectly clear about what you want students to do and what you will consider an appropriate response. However, the students do not have access to all the background material in your head. And sometimes you can find that students are not doing the things that you were expecting them to do. It means you need to revise your assessment procedures. Try to get feedback from other teachers also, asking them to review your items and make suggestions for changes before the items are actually used.

Methods of scoring performance and product assessments

The three major issues in the scoring of performance and production tasks are (1) the method of scoring, (2) type of score scale, and (3) avoidance of problems affecting validity, reliability and fairness.

There are basically four scoring methods used to score performance and production tasks: holistic, analytic, primary trait, and domain. The analytic method provides the most information, but requires the most time. Holistic scoring is fairly easy to do and is quite satisfactory for many situations, but it does not provide the diagnostic information most teachers want. Primary trait scoring focuses on the purpose for the task and success in attaining that purpose. Domain scoring is a compromise, offering separate scores for a limited number of major categories. Different rubrics can be created for all these methods.

Holistic scoring is based on the assumption that the components of a task are so closely interrelated that there is little point in trying to separate one element from another. Instead, anchor points are described, and illustrations of products and performances to be scored at the various anchor points are provided. In holistic scoring, a single score that incorporates all aspects of the criteria to be considered is assigned to each response. It is usually desirable to write a brief description of the product or performance at each point of the scale, and to select illustrative products for each point.

Analytic scoring may use either a checklist or a component rating scale.

Checklists. A checklist may be prepared for scorers to use when looking for the elements that are to be considered. Sometimes, scorers are asked to simply check whether an element is “present” or “absent” or “satisfactory” or “unsatisfactory”. At other times, scorers not only check the presence or absence but, in the case of a performance, they may also indicate the order in which the behavior occurred.

Component ratings. In another type of analytic scoring, the objective is broken into component parts, and each component is (supposedly) scored independently – that is, the score on one component should not influence the scores on the other component. For each component, the scoring may use a rating scale like the scales used for holistic scoring, in which case total score is simply the sum of the ratings for the various components.

Primary trait scoring measures if performers or producers hit their target. For example, for CSL project criteria could be: “Students managed find solutions for problem they have chosen”. Or for wallpaper as product criteria could be: “Wallpaper’s articles are designed according of the main heading”.

Domain scoring system is a compromise between analytic and holistic scoring. It yields a separate score for each of a number of specified domains that are more broadly defined than are the points for analytic scoring.

Validity and Reliability of method

Because of the subjective nature of performance and product assessment, evaluators can become a source of bias. If the performance or product criteria teachers apply in evaluating student work are incorrect, imprecise, or influenced by factors unrelated to the students’ actual achievement, bias is taking place. To prevent such occurrences, teachers must establish reliable criteria and learn to apply them consistently. Stiggins (2005) suggests ways to ensure that subjective assessment of performance and product tasks is as objective as it can be:

- Be mindful of the purpose for assessing – who needs to understand and act on the results?
- Be crystal clear about the target – align tasks and rubrics precisely to it.
- Articulate the key elements of good performance in explicit performance criteria within the rubric.
- Share those criteria with students in terms they understand – provide practice in applying those criteria if they are to be among the judges.
- Everyone who is to use them must learn to apply the rubrics in a consistent manner.

- Double check to be sure that inappropriate filters (factors unrelated to the achievement in question, your own biases) are not creeping into the evaluation, thus distorting assessment results.

There is a simple way to check for bias in your performance evaluations. Remember, bias occurs when factors other than the kind of achievement being assessed begin to influence rater judgment, such as examinees gender, age, origin or prior academic record. You can determine the degree of objectivity of your ratings by comparing them with the judgments of another trained and qualified evaluator who independently observes and evaluates the same student performance with the intent of applying the same criteria. If a performance is a product that students created, you can show it to your colleagues to evaluate it. If it is a skill you can videotape and show competent colleagues to get their feedback.

You can once more think if your task meets following criteria (Popham, 1995):

- *Generalizability*: Is there a high likelihood that the students' performance on the task will generalize to comparable tasks?
- *Authenticity*: Is the task similar to what students might encounter in the real world as opposed to encountering only in school?
- *Multiple foci*: Does the task measure multiple instructional outcomes instead of only one?
- *Teachability*: Is the task one that students can become more proficient in as a consequence of a teacher's instructional efforts?
- *Fairness*: Is the task fair to all students, without any bias for different groups?
- *Scorability*: Is the task likely to elicit student responses that can be reliably and accurately evaluated?

Student involvement in performance and product assessment

Stiggins (2005) suggests using such assessments as tools for instruction thus teaching students to evaluate their own and each other's performance. For this purpose:

- Share the performance and product criteria with students at the beginning of the unit of instruction.
- Collaborate with students in keeping track of which criteria have been covered in class and which are yet to come.
- Involve students in creating prominent visual displays of important performance criteria for bulletin boards.
- Engage students in the actual development of performance exercises.
- Engage students in comparing and contrasting the examples of performance or products, some of which reflect high quality work and some of which do not.
- Involve students in a process of transforming performance criteria into checklists, rating scales and other recording methods.
- Have students evaluate their own and each other's performance, one-on-one and/or in cooperative groups.
- Have students rate performance and then conduct studies of how much agreement (i.e. objectivity) there was among student judges; see if degree of agreement increases as students become more proficient as performers and as judges.
- Have students write about their own growth over time with respect to specified criteria.
- Have students set specific achievement goals in terms of the criteria and then keep track of their own progress.

- Store several samples of each student's performance over time, either as a portfolio or on videotape, if appropriate, and have students compare old performance to new, discussing their own growth.
- Have students predict their performance criterion-by-criterion, and then check actual evaluations to see if their predictions are accurate.

Personal Communication as Assessment

Classroom interaction as evidence of learning

Teachers gather a great deal of valuable information about student achievement by talking with them. We seldom think of this personal interaction as "assessment", but it often is (Stiggins, 2005). At different times during teaching and learning we ask questions, listen to answers, and evaluate achievement. Or we conduct conferences with students that, in effect, serve as interviews that yield information about achievement. If our interactions are focused, characterized by active listening, and lead to cautious conclusions, personal communications with and among students can provide a valid and reliable window into learning. We can engage in the following forms of interpersonal communication with students, all of which can provide valuable information:

- Questions and answers during instruction.
- Conferences with students.
- Students' contributions during class discussions.
- Oral examinations.
- Journals, diaries and learning logs.

When we use these forms of assessment with care, we can tap dimensions of achievement not easily assessed through other means. For example, an effective questioner can use properly sequenced questions to probe deeply into students' reasoning to help them tune in to and understand their own problem-solving approaches. Further, thoughtful questioners can effectively link assessment to instruction using questions to uncover and immediately correct students' misconceptions and faulty reasoning. Nowhere is classroom assessment more of an art, Stiggins (2005) continues, than when using personal communication to track student growth and development. Typically, there is no table of test specifications to match against our intended target. There are no test items to check for quality, no score results. We can't check for agreement among observers to see if judgments are consistent. Personal communication is more spontaneous, more personal.

Factors for ensuring quality assessment

As with the other assessment methods we have studied, the validity and reliability of a personal communication-based assessment relies on its use in appropriate contexts and on teacher's ability to manage effectively the subjectivity inherent in this method. There are several factors about which teachers should remain constantly aware:

Common language: Teacher and student must share a common language for this mode of assessment to work effectively, for in its absence bias can creep in, rendering the evidence undependable.

Personality of student is important: Shy, withdrawn students simply may not perform in this kind of assessment context, regardless of their real achievement. To make these methods work, two people must connect in an open, communicative manner. For some students, this simply is too risky.

But there are also students with very outgoing, aggressive personalities that will try to lay down a “smoke screen” to mislead you with respect to their real achievement. But this works only with assessors who have not prepared carefully, and who cannot stay focused.

Safe environment: Personal communication works best as assessment when students feel they are in a safe learning environment. Teachers create safe environments when they make it clear to their students that students are successful when they meet standards – when teachers tell them that they really will grow at different rates, and it’s OK, and that they will have time to grow at their own effective rate. When considered in the context of the personal communication assessment, we promote safety when we permit our students to succeed or fail in private, without an embarrassing public spotlight.

Honesty and openness: personal communication works best as assessment when students understand that sometimes as their teacher you need an honest answer, not their attempt at a best possible answer they think will please you. This mode of assessment provides its best information most efficiently when good interpersonal relations exist between teacher and students. Again, the key is trust. Students must know that if they give you the “socially desirable” response to a question, a response that misrepresents the truth about their achievement or feelings, and then you will be less able to help them. Students need to know that, unless they can help us see and understand the real status of their current learning, we will have difficulty identifying their needs and ways to help them learn. In this case, when we ask them a question, they need to understand that it’s OK to say, “I don’t know”. It’s not a sign of weakness; indeed, it is a sign of willingness to learn.

Different forms of personal communication as assessment

Stiggins (2005) suggests four formats of personal communication assessment. Many of them really existed in the schools since their beginning. But because of the lack of reflection on them teachers sometimes haven’t even noticed that they were assessing. Of course, there are many teachers that have a natural talent for assessment through personal communication, but the material suggested below can be helpful for most teachers to reflect on their communication habits and perhaps enhance them.

Instructional questions and answers

This has been a foundation of education since before Socrates. As instruction proceeds the teacher poses questions for students to answer. This activity promotes thinking and learning, and also provides information about achievement. The teacher listens to answers, interprets them in terms of internally held standards, infers the respondent’s level of attainment, and proceeds accordingly. Here are some keys to strength this assessment format, suggested by Stiggins (2005).

- Plan key questions in advance of instruction, so as to ensure proper alignment with the target and with students’ capabilities.
- Ask clear, brief questions that help students focus on a relatively narrow range of acceptable responses.
- Probe various kinds of reasoning, as appropriate.
- Ask the question first and then call on the person who is to respond. This will have the effect of keeping all students in focus.
- Call on both volunteer and nonvolunteer respondents. This, too, will keep all students in the game.
- Acknowledge correct or high-quality responses; probe incorrect responses for underlying reasons.

- After posing a question, wait for a response. Let respondents know that you always expect a response and will wait for as long as it takes.

For helping students to achieve skills of reasoning teachers need use different kinds of questions as suggested in the table below:

To tap	Begin the question with...
Analysis	How do the parts of a ----- work together? How does ----- break down into its parts? What are the components of -----? What are the active ingredients in -----?
Synthesis	Given what you know about ----- and -----, what would happen if you -----? What two sources of knowledge do you need to combine to solve this problem? What do ----- and ----- have in common?
Comparison	How are these alike? Different? Define the similarities between.....? How does this correspond to that?
Classification	Into which category does each of the following fit? Group the following and label each category. Match each entry below with its classification.
Induction and Deduction	If this were to happen, then what would result? Using what you know about -----, solve this problem. What would be the consequences of -----? The central idea of theme or the story is what?
Evaluation	State your position on this issue and defend it. Is this a good quality piece of work, in your opinion? Why? Argue in favor of or against -----.

Conferences and interviews

Some student-teacher conferences serve as structured or unstructured audits of student achievement, in which the objective is to talk about what students have learned and have yet to learn. Teachers and students talk directly and openly about levels of student attainment, comfort with the material the students are mastering, specific needs, interests, and desires and/or any other achievement-related topics that contribute to an effective teaching and learning environment. Interviews and conferences might well vary in their focus with students who have different needs. Teachers can meet with only one student and discuss existing problems. Stiggins (2005) suggests following keys:

- Carefully think out and plan your questions in advance. Remember, students can share in their preparation.
- Plan for enough uninterrupted time to conduct the entire interview or conference.
- Be sure to conclude each meeting with a summary of the lessons learned and their implications for how you and the student will work together in the future.

One important strength of the interview or conference as a mode of assessment lies in the impact it can have on your student-teacher relationships. When conducted in a context where you have been up front about expectations, students understand the achievement target, and all involved

are invested in student success, conferences have the effect of empowering students to take responsibility for at least part of the assessment of their own progress.

Guidelines for interviewing students: The following guidelines are suggested by Johnson and Johnson (1996), who think that good teachers need to become like Socrates for doing good interviews.

- Choose a topic being studied.
- Develop two or three general questions on what the student knows about the topic to begin an interview.
- After asking the opening questions, probe what the student knows while looking for inconsistencies, contradictions, or conflicts in what the student is saying.
- Ask-follow-up questions that highlight the conflicts within the student's reasoning and makes the contradictions focal points for the student's attention.
- Continue the interview until the student has resolved the conflicts by moving towards deeper-level analysis of what he/she knows and arriving at greater insights into the material being studied.
- Conclude the interview with pointing the student toward further resources to read and study.
- Word and organize questions so that the relationship between you and the student becomes more positive and trusting, which encourages both you and the student to feel at ease, be spontaneous, respond honestly, and communicate effectively.
- Phrase questions so that (a) students do not become defensive, (b) students' thoughts are clarified, (c) students have the opportunity to expand or modify, (d) you do not put ideas into the student's mind, and (e) you do not suggest that students should have attitudes when they have none.
- Begin the interview with simple, non-threatening questions and save the more complex and threatening questions for the end of the interview.
- Move from general to specific questions.
- Make nonverbal cues helpful to eliciting full and complete responses from the student. Avoid smiling too much and excessive affirmative nodding of the head.
- Be quiet. What the student needs is a skillful empathetic listener.
- Allow sufficient wait-time for students to formulate their thoughts and answer. Do not rush students' responses.

Class discussions

When students participate in class discussions, the things they say reveal a great deal about their achievements and their feelings. Discussions are teacher- or student-led group interactions in which the material to be mastered is explored from various perspectives. Teachers listen to the interaction, evaluate the quality of student contributions, and infer individual student or group achievement. Clearly, class discussions have the simultaneous effect of promoting both student learning and their ability to use what they know. To take advantage of the strengths of this method of assessment, while minimizing the impact of potential weaknesses, follow these keys suggested by Stiggins (2005):

- Prepare questions or discussion issues in advance to focus sharply on the intended achievement target.
- be sure students are aware of your focus in evaluating their contributions. Are you judging the content of students' contributions or the form of their contribution – how they communicate? Be clear about what it means to be good at each.

- Remember, the public display of achievement or lack thereof is risky in the eyes of some students. Provide those students with other, more private means of demonstrating achievement.
- In contexts where achievement information derived from participation in discussion is to influence high-staked decisions – assessments of learning – keep dependable records of performance. Rely on more than your memory of their involvement.
- Involve students in preparing for discussions, being sure that their questions and key issues are part of the mix.
- Rely on debate or other team formats to maximize the number of students who can be directly involved. Pay special attention to involving low achievers.
- Formalize the discussion format to the extent that different roles are identified, such as moderator, team leader, spokesperson, recorder and so on, to maximize the number of students who have the opportunity to be deeply involved and thus present evidence of their achievement.

Oral examinations

This type of assessment was widely used in Armenian schools. Nowadays with the entrance of alternative assessment methods into classrooms, many teachers lost interest in this type of assessment, though others continue to rely on it as it was in the past. Remember, that this method helps teacher by means of continued questioning deeply to precisely understand the level of student's achievement. This method is good and should be used, but entirely relying on these assessments becomes boring and less involvement of students takes place. For making this method more sufficient Stiggins (2005) suggests:

- Develop brief exercises that focus on the desired target.
- Develop written scoring criteria in advance of the assessment.
- Be sure criteria separate content and reasoning targets from facility with verbal expression.
- Prepare in advance to accommodate the needs of any students who may confront language proficiency barriers.
- have a checklist, rating scale, or other method of recording results ready to use at the time of the assessment.
- If necessary, record responses for later reevaluation.

Student involvement in communication assessment

Because instruction is conducted in large part through personal interaction between teacher and student, in a very real sense students are always partners in personal communication-based forms of assessment. But there are also some strategies, developed by Stiggins (2005) that will help involve students in such assessment to a greater degree:

- Turn leadership for discussion over to students; they can ask questions of each other or of you.
- Ask students to paraphrase each other's questions and responses.
- Ask students to address key questions in small groups, so more students can be involved.

- Offer students opportunities to become oral examiners, posing questions to each other.
- Ask students to keep track of changes in the depth of their own questions over time, such as through the use of tally sheets and diaries.
- Designate one or two students to be observers and recorders during discussions, noting who responds to what kinds of questions and how well; other teachers can do this too.
- Engage students in peer and self-assessment of performance in discussions.
- Schedule regular interviews with students, one-on-one or in groups.
- Schedule times when your students can interview you to get your impressions about how well things are going for them as individuals and as a group.

Whether in whole-class discussions, smaller collaborative groups, or working with a partner, students can be assessors, too. They can ask questions of each other, listen to responses, infer achievement, and communicate feedback to each other. But the ability to communicate needs to be developed, so teachers should be patient while helping students to develop this very important skill for democratic societies.

Assessing Skills, Attitudes and Values

Though in the Armenian school system there was no explicit assessment of attitudes and values, good teachers always were assessing students' attitudes toward learning, school, themselves and helping them to conquer negative attitudes to become more successful. But this assessment was spontaneous as a characteristic of the teacher. Some teachers thought it was important, some teachers ignored the issue. So this subchapter will be about the importance of affective assessment in learning and teaching. And it will help our teachers to develop a prepared approach on the questions of this sphere.

What is affective assessment?

Affective variables, most educators concede, are important. Students attitudes toward learning, for example, play major role in how much learning those students subsequently pursue. The values that students have regarding truthfulness and integrity shape students' daily conduct. And students' self-esteem, of course, influences almost everything they do. There's little doubt that the affective status of students should concern all educators. In truth, however, few classroom teachers give explicit attention to influencing their students' attitudes and values. Even fewer classroom teachers actually try to assess the affective status of their students. Certainly, a teacher may observe a student and conclude that, for example, student is "a bit depressed", but how many times have you heard about teachers, asks Popham (1995) who tried to gather systematic evidence regarding students' attitudes and values? Unfortunately, concludes he, systematic assessment of affect is pretty uncommon.

Many teachers, particularly those who teach older students, believe that their only educational mission is to increase students' knowledge and skills. Affect, such teachers believe, simply doesn't fall into their proper sphere of influence. However, students who can compose outstanding essays but believe they are "really rotten writers" won't spend much time volitionally whipping out essays. Many specialists in the assessment arena now regard affective variables as far more significant sometimes that even cognitive variables (See Popham, 1995; Stiggins, 2005, Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999). In real life we can see people who weren't all that "gifted" intellectually but they still succeed because they are highly motivated and hard working. And conversely, many times we see truly able people simply veer away from challenges because they did not consider themselves

worthy. Day in and day out, we see the enormous impact that people's affective status has on them. Affect is every bit as important in school, especially for HS where students also learn how to become motivated, how to resist difficulties, how to find themselves and moral values that will lead them to a whole life. Why is affect important? The reason that such affective variables as students' attitudes and values are important to us is that those variables typically influence students' future behavior. Students who have positive attitudes toward learning today will be disposed to pursue learning in the future. So, values and attitudes that are emerging in students today will affect all their lives and future behavior. Of course, people change, but if a student in HS has formed an inner belief about the need for a healthy lifestyle it's realistic to believe that this person will be attentive to health issues the rest of his/her life. Or if a person developed an approach that human beings are more important than material items, this person will be respectful to self and others. So, teachers will agree that the current affective status of a person may predict future behavior.

There are many types of possible attitudinal foci for a teacher's instruction. But following are some of them, suggested by Popham (1995).

- *Subject-approaching attitudes.* Students should regard the subject matter taught more positively at the end of instruction than they did when instruction began. At the very least, students should be no more negative toward the subject being taught as a consequence of instruction.
- *Positive attitudes toward learning.* Students should regard the act of learning positively. Students who are positive about learning today will tend to be learners tomorrow.
- *Positive attitude toward self.* Self-esteem is the attitude, around which most people's personal worlds turn. Although children's self-esteem is probably influenced more by parents and nonschool events than by teachers, what happens in the classroom can have a significant impact on children's self-esteem.
- *Positive attitude toward self as a learner.* Self-esteem as a learner is an effective variable over which educators have substantial influence. If students believe they are capable of learning, they will tend to learn.
- *Attitudes toward national and world values.* School is the place where students will become bearers of all high values created by mankind. Emergence and development of these values will be the premise for a future moral society.

Of course, there are many values which people think are not the province of schools. For example, political approaches of different parties shouldn't enter schools, and even if teachers are members of particular parties or have some strong feelings about political reality in the country they should not transfer their own values into the teaching process leaving students free to choose their approaches themselves. But there are basic human values that need to be taught in school and especially in HS SS classroom. See corresponding chapter. So teachers need to assess if the most important values and attitudes are displayed by students. Some examples of such values can be:

- *Honesty.* Students should learn to value honesty in their dealing with others.
- *Integrity.* Students should firmly adhere to their own code of values – for example, moral or artistic.
- *Justice.* Students should subscribe to the view that all citizens should be the recipients of equal justice.
- *Freedom.* Students should believe that democratic government must provide the maximum level of freedom to its citizens, and citizens in turn should cultivate in themselves the ability to be free.

- *Responsibility.* Students should understand that responsibility is the other side of freedom without which freedom is empty sound. They should fulfill their obligations.

Ground rules for affective assessment

When educators assess dispositions, they tap the feeling dimensions of students in school, the inner motivations or desires that influence their thoughts and their actions. In this case we center not on what students know and can do, but on what they feel about key aspects of their schooling; the attitudes, motivations, and interests that predispose students to behave in academically productive ways. Stiggins (2005) emphasizes, that we can't separate affective and achievement assessment from one another in the classroom. As teachers, we must know how to help students develop academically empowering dispositions and must be ready to teach them how to use those dispositions to promote their own success.

Students who have positive attitudes about the things they are learning, and feel a sense of internal control over their own academic well-being, are more likely to achieve at high levels than those who are negative, lack desire, and see themselves as victims of a hostile school world. Very often students fail, not because they cannot achieve, but because they choose not to achieve. Often, they have given up and are not motivated to learn. Why? Stiggins think there may be many reasons: they don't understand the work; find it too hard to do, lack prerequisite achievement and so on. And so they fail, which in turn robs them of (1) the prerequisites for the next learning and (2) a sense that they could succeed if they tried. This can become a vicious cycle: they feel academically powerless and they become powerless. This downward spiral can result from the complex interaction between achievement and dispositions.

But this spiral also can take a very positive direction. If teachers can give students evidence that they are succeeding, what can begin to grow in them is a sense of hope for the future and expectation of further success down the road. This, in turn, fuels their motivation to strive for excellence, which results in the upward spiral of positive dispositions and academic achievement that every parent and teacher dreams for their children. So ground rules are:

1. Assess only for helping, for making upward spiral, not for causing depression.
2. Remain aware of the sensitive nature of students' feelings and strive to promote appropriate dispositions through your assessment of them.
3. Be caring, but stay in bounds with assessing students' feelings.
4. If you assessed some attitudes or dispositions, be caring enough to change certain things in instruction, and students will understand that your assessment procedures weren't purposeless.

Some dimensions of classroom affect

According to Anderson and Bourke (2000) dimensions of classroom affect are attitudes, school-related values, academic self-efficacy, interests, academic aspirations and evaluation or assessment anxiety. Though Popham (1995) and Ward and Murray-Ward (1999) suggest other classifications generally approaches are very similar. These dimensions of classroom affect influence directly students' motivation to learn.

Attitudes. An attitude is a favorable or unfavorable feeling about someone or something. The focus might be a person, a school subject, or a particular method of instruction. Attitudes can be changeable, especially among young people.

School-related value. Values are our beliefs about what should be desired, what is important or cherished, and what standards of conduct are acceptable (Anderson and Bourke (2000). Values are

the way that human society transfers culture from one generation to another. Values related with school or academic success can be:

- Belief in the value of education for a productive life
- Belief in the benefits of strong effort in school
- Belief in the good relationships between teachers and students, honesty and trust.

Academic self-efficacy. No affective characteristic is more school related than this one. It is the evaluative judgment one makes about one's possibility of success and productivity in an academic context. Those, who see themselves as capable learners are predisposed to be capable learners. Stiggins (2005) believes, that teachers' aspiration must be to help students see the connection between their efforts and their levels of academic success. Those who perceive themselves as being in control of their own academic destiny, and who at the same time see the goal as being within their grasp, are predisposed to succeed. In short, we seek to imbue students with an internal locus of academic control.

Interests. Interest is preference given to certain things: processes, skills, ideas etc. Students might be very interested in simulation games but not in interviews. So teachers need to assess their interests to understand which methods will work best in a certain environment.

Academic Aspirations. These refer to the intention of students to continue to learn or to stop. If students like the process of learning and feel growth, they supposedly would like to continue and learn more and more, but if something in the learning process irritates students they probably will want to stop learning. And in fact will do it even while attending school regularly.

Evaluation anxiety. This factor is very important for teachers to reflect upon. They should create an environment where students will not be anxious for their assessment or evaluation results, they will expect fair and caring assessment procedures. Also teachers in HS should teach students how to overcome assessment anxiety during entrance exams or different academic competitions outside the school.

When teachers know these dimensions of classroom affect and try to stress a positive affect, students become more confident and desire to continue learning.

Developing affective assessment

There are so many affects, attitudes, and values that could be assessed. Of course, teachers don't have sufficient time to do such assessment in the classroom, but they can sometimes use very simple psychological techniques to assess students' most important affects. Popham (1995) suggests some good tools: interviews with students, self-report assessment (essay) and Likert inventories. The first two are familiar for our teachers, so let's describe how to develop a Likert inventory. Because of its reading applicability to a variety of affective assessment targets, the approach to attitudinal measurement introduced by Likert (1932) is the most widely used. Likert inventories can handle almost all of your affective assessment requirements, because it is a very serviceable affective measurement strategy.

Likert inventories consist of a series of statements to which the respondent registers his/her agreement or disagreement. For example, you are given a statement such as "Reading this book about classroom assessment represents one of the finest professional experiences of my career". The respondent then chooses from a set of options to agree or disagree with this statement. The usual options are *strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree*. Let's look, then, at a simple series of steps teachers should follow to create a Likert inventory for their own classroom:

1. *Choose the affective variable you want to assess.* Decide what attitude or value you want to assess, then try to get as clearheaded as possible about what the affective variable really means.

2. *Generate a series of favorable and unfavorable statements regarding the affective variable.* For example, if you were, interested in students' attitudes regarding reading, you might construct a positive statement such as "People who read for fun are stupid". Try to generate a few more statements than you ultimately plan to use. For students in secondary schools, a 10-item Likert inventory takes little time to complete. Try to construct an approximately equal number of positive and negative statements.
3. *Get several people to classify each statement as positive or negative.* Corral a few colleagues or family members to look at your generated statements and classify each statement as positive or negative. Toss out any statement that isn't unanimously classified as positive or negative.
4. *Decide on the number and phrasing of the response options for each statement.* The original Likert inventory had the following five options: SD =Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, NS = Not Sure, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree.
5. *Prepare the self-report inventory giving students directions regarding how to respond and stipulating that the inventory must be completed anonymously.* If students haven't previously completed such inventories, they'll need good, clear directions. It is helpful to include an illustration or two on how students might respond. Simple statements about generally known topics, such as, food or movies work well on such illustrations.
6. *Administer the inventory either to your own students or, if possible (as a tryout), to other students.* If another teacher is willing, try out your inventory with students similar to your own. Based on the responses of those students, you can then improve the inventory before giving it to your own students. If you must use inventory with your own students, you can still improve the inventory for use later in the year with the same students or, perhaps, next year with another set of students.
7. *Score the inventories.* Assign points for each student's response to each item based on the direction of the statement. For instance, if you are using five response options, you would give five points to strongly agree responses to positive statements and also five points to strongly disagree responses to negative statements. Thus, for a 10-item inventory the scores could range from 10 to 50. Generally speaking, the higher the score, the more appropriate students' affective status appears to be.
8. *Identify and eliminate the statements that fail to function in accord with the other statements.* Simply "eye-ball" students' responses and try to detect statements to which students are responding differently than to rest of the statements. Dump those statements. Then restore the inventories without the rejected items.

For each affective variable of interest you can create a different inventory. The more experience you accumulate in creating Likert inventories, the easier it gets. Remember, that answers should be anonymous. One other way is to not collect answers of students, but let them reflect on their attitudes and understand where they are. Don't allow students to write anything other than simple circles on the right answers, emphasize that answers are anonymous. If students are sure of it they will be more honest and open. You can assess attitudes before certain instruction periods and after that to see if you succeed in implementing certain content, approaches or values. Use average results to make inferences about all students. With such an inventory you can't assess a single student.

Assessing student attitudes through cooperative learning

Johnson and Johnson (1996) have developed a "Classroom life instrument" which can be one good tool for assessing students' attitudes in different areas of classroom life. Teachers can use it if they work in a cooperative manner, because many questions are about cooperative learning. Here is the questionnaire.

Classroom life

Directions (for students): On the answer sheet, next to each statement, write the number which tells how true each of this statements is of you.

- 1 = False all the time
- 2 = False some of the time
- 3 = Neither false nor true
- 4 = True some of the time
- 5 = True all the time

1. Other students in this class want me to do my best schoolwork.
2. My best friends are in this class.
3. I am not doing as well in school as i would like to.
4. I find it hard to speak my thoughts clearly when I am in this class.
5. In this class, the other students like to help me learn.
6. Schoolwork is fairly easy for me.
7. Other students in this class think it is important to be my friend.
8. When we work together in small groups, we try to make sure that everyone in the group learns the assigned material.
9. I learn more from students who are similar to me.
10. I do schoolwork to make my teacher happy.
11. In this class it is important that we learn things by ourselves.
12. I like to work with other students in this class.
13. I should get along with other students better than I do.
14. I do schoolwork because my classmates expect it of me.
15. My teacher really cares about me.
16. When we work together in small groups, our job is not done until everyone in the group has completed the assignment.
17. In this class we work together.
18. In this class, we spent a lot of time working at our own desks.
19. I learn new things from arguing with other students.
20. My teacher thinks it is important to be my friend.
21. In this class, everyone has an equal chance to succeed if they do their best.
22. In this class, other students care about how much I learn.
23. Whenever I take a test I am afraid I will fail.
24. When we work together in small groups, we all receive bonus points if everyone scores above a certain criteria.
25. In this class other students like me the way I am.
26. When we work together in small groups, we all receive the same grade.
27. My teacher cares about how much I learn.
28. I do schoolwork to make my parents happy.
29. I would rather work alone than argue.
30. In this class, everybody is my friend.
31. Other students in this class want me to come to class every day.
32. I do schoolwork to keep my teacher from getting mad at me.
33. In this class, students check answers with other students.
34. In this class, we do not talk to other students when we work.
35. When we work together in small groups, our grade depends on how much all members learn.
36. My teacher likes to see my work.

37. Other students in this class care about my feelings.
38. I often get discouraged in school.
39. Other students in this class like me as much as they like others.
40. In this class, we help each other with our schoolwork.
41. I like being in a group where students often disagree with each other.
42. If a student works hard, he/she can definitely succeed in this class.
43. My teacher likes to help me learn.
44. When we work together in small groups, I have to make sure that the other members learn if I want to do well on the assignment.
45. In this class, we work by ourselves.
46. In this class, other students really care about me.
47. I have a lot of questions I never get a chance to ask in class.
48. I do schoolwork to be liked by others students.
49. In this class, we learn more when we work with others.
50. My teacher wants me to do my best schoolwork.
51. When we work together in small groups, we cannot complete an assignment unless everyone contributes.
52. My teacher likes me as much as he/she likes other students.
53. I am often lonely in this class.
54. In this class, students get scores they deserve, no more and no less.
55. My teacher cares about my feelings.
56. All the students in this class know each other well.
57. I deserve the scores I get in this class.
58. I am a good student.
59. When we work together in small groups, the teacher divides up the material so that everyone has a part and everyone has to share.
60. I like being in a learning group with students who are different from me.
61. I often feel upset in school.
62. Arguing with other students makes me feel unhappy.
63. I have more fun when I work with students who are different from me.
64. I learn more from students who are different from me.
65. Sometimes I think the scoring system in this class is not fair.
66. When we work together in small groups, we have to share materials in order to complete the assignment.
67. I like to share my ideas and materials with other students.
68. It bothers me when I have to do it all myself.
69. I like my work better when I do it all myself.
70. I like the challenge of seeing who's best.
71. I don't like to be second.
72. When we work together in small groups, everyone's ideas are needed if we are going to be successful.
73. I am happiest when I am competing with other students.
74. Competing with other students is a good way to work.
75. I do not like working with other students in school.
76. I can learn important things from other students.
77. I work to get better grades than other students do.
78. I like to help other students learn.
79. I like to compete with other students to see who can do the best work.
80. Working in small groups is better than working alone.
81. I try to share my ideas and materials with other students when I think it will help them.

82. When we work together in small groups, I have to find out what everyone else knows if I am going to be able to do the assignment.
83. It is a good idea for students to help each other learn.
84. I like to do better work than other students.
85. I like to cooperate with other students.
86. I like to work with other students.
87. I do better work when I work alone.
88. Students learn a lot of important things from each other.
89. I would rather work on schoolwork alone than with other students.
90. I like to be the best student in the class.
91. I am doing a good job of learning in class.

Keys for teachers:

Different qualities are measured by different scales. Some questions are repeated in various forms to see if answers are constant. Following will be numbers of questions that help assess certain qualities.

- Teacher academic support: questions 27; 36; 43; 50.
- Teacher personal support: 15; 20; 52; 55.
- Student academic support: 1; 5; 22; 31.
- Student personal support: 7; 25; 37; 39; 46.
- Cooperation: 67; 76; 78; 81; 83; 85; 88.
- Cooperation, Scale two: 17; 33; 40; 49.
- Positive goal interdependence: 8; 16; 24; 66; 72; 82.
- Resource interdependence: 51; 59; 66; 72; 82.
- Alienation: 3; 4; 6; 13; 23; 38; 47; 53; 58; 61; 65.
- Extrinsic Motivation, Social Support: 10; 14; 28; 32; 48.
- Cohesion: 2; 12; 30; 53; 56.
- Academic self-esteem: 3; 6; 23; 58; 91.
- Fairness of grading: 21; 42; 54; 57; 65.
- Individualistic learning: 11; 18; 34; 45; 68; 69; 75; 80; 86; 87; 89.
- Competitive learning: 70; 71; 73; 74; 77; 79; 84; 90.
- Controversy: 19; 29; 41; 62.
- Valuing heterogeneity 9; 60; 63; 64.

Dealing With Assessment Results

Student Profiles

Teachers regularly collect and use a wide variety of data on their students. In fact, teachers generally possess extensive knowledge of their students' abilities, achievements and behaviors. These data come from both formal assessments, such as test scores and grades, and informal assessments, such as observations of students' work habits and classroom behavior. When a student is not progressing academically or is exhibiting behavioral problems that interfere with learning, we need to look even more closely at that student.

Teachers, who are usually the first to notice a problem, should start by trying to determine the nature of the problem for themselves. Doing this requires them to gather information and make sense

of it. This is a process of preparing a student profile. Classroom managers and principals, too, may need to develop a clear picture of students' behavior and achievement because they must regularly share information about students with each other, other school personnel, parents and the students themselves (Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999).

Reasons for creating students profiles

Teachers may use a student profile for many purposes (Ward, Murray-Ward, 1999). It can be used as a source of information for a discussion with a parent or student about student progress or possible curricular or program changes. Teachers or counselors create profiles to prepare for conferences with students to review achievement progress or behavior problems. They may also use a profile with another teacher, classroom manager or principal for the purpose of requesting help with a student from other professionals. A profile could be the basis for a discussion of the need for a new grade-level placement or for a parent conference where educators and parents together make important decisions about matters such as student's referral for special services or suspension or expulsion.

A teacher may create profiles at the beginning of instruction to diagnose student needs, as a means to monitor progress, or as a summative evaluation over a long instructional period such as semester. Usually you will create a profile only when there is some kind of problem that you want to understand. Following is a discussion about possible problems.

Poor overall achievement: you might decide to prepare a profile if a student's test scores and the quality of his/her class work are much lower than those of other students. In this case the data sources would be all available test data as well as scores on the class work.

Deficits in prerequisite knowledge and skills: this is one of the most common reasons why you might want to prepare a profile, because past achievement is directly tied to current achievement. Achievement test data, especially data from good diagnosis tests, can help you identify how bad the deficit is. Another usual technique is a checklist of skills.

Failure to master end-of-instruction objectives: this is another reason for creating a profile. Nonmastery is explored through tests and student work samples. You might collect student work showing end-of-instruction activities and look for the places where mastery was and was not achieved.

Error patterns in classroom work: Examination of consistent errors in achievement such as frequent place value mistakes, inability to find main idea or inability to write a topic sentence for a paragraph can help a teacher to plan the next instructional phase. Here useful sources of data can be individual and group achievement tests, diagnostic subject area tests, textbook tests and student work samples.

Unproductive behaviors that interfere with student achievement: Some student behaviors interfere with learning because they keep students from focusing on a task. They may also distract other students. Some unproductive behaviors are subtler. Some individuals may be unwilling to take risks on problem tasks, or they may adopt a rigid approach to solutions. Some may not feel secure when working with other students in cooperative group activities, or they may try to dominate a group with their own ideas. Exploration of such behavior problems might require systematic observation or a collection of records by one or more teachers. Student interviews, attitude tests and other affective assessments may be useful in this instance.

Errors in students cognitive Organization of concepts: Some students seem to have problems in cognitive organization – a concept based on the cognitive psychology precept that every individual structures or organizes knowledge in unique ways. Students with faulty cognitive organization might be unable to access appropriate information when they need it. Investigating the problem required a sophisticated analysis of interviews with the student, work samples by the student, and observations

of the student. To investigate this situation teachers need a deep understanding of the knowledge and structural organization of a subject area and of the principles of cognitive psychology. This type of information is essential for working with students who struggle academically and for whom other types of analyses offer few clues. For some students we might get some valuable information by collecting works-in-progress and looking for individual error patterns.

Steps in creating a student profile

Here is an explanation about creating a student profile suggested by Ward and Murray-Ward (1999). Of course, you can modify your profiles but basic procedures are the following steps:

1. Describe the student and circumstances that led you to create the profile.
2. Generate questions that you will attempt to answer as a rationale for the profile.
3. Collect data that will best address the questions.
4. Answer the questions generated in step 2.
5. Draw conclusions about the data you have collected.

Step 1: Describe the student and circumstances that led you to create the profile. Your first step is to choose one or more of the six reasons described above and briefly describe the student, his/her behavior, and other relevant information that supports your reason for the profile. The key point to remember is that you are going to collect and analyze the information in the profile based on this description. Think in which areas is the student not successful. The following is a sample profile that will help to understand the steps of creating a profile:

Sample student profile

Description: Don, a 13-year-old 8th grade male student, shows consistently low academic performance in all his classes; appears unconcerned about his achievement; slow to complete his work at all; is disorganized and distracted when he is working; makes inappropriate comments in class.

Questions:

1. Is this student academically misplaced in courses that are too difficult for him?
2. What is the cause of his academic difficulties? (Prior school experience, learning disability, etc.)

Data

Test scores: 3rd grade exam

Extremely low language and quantitative skills levels

Report Cards: Consistently earned “3” or “2”. Previous teachers were also concerned with his listening, attention, and inability to stay focused on task.

Observations: Other current teachers concerned about his academic performance and inability to stay focused and “on task”. He is easily distracted from his work.

Student work: His work shows difficulty in applying, interpreting, and analyzing information. He loses scope of thinking in the middle of writing or speaking.

Answer to Questions:

1. Don’s previous grades and classroom behavior do indicate that he is misplaced in his classes.
2. Teachers consistently report his lack of focus, distractibility, and inattention that possibly caused the problem.

Conclusions: Don’s consistently poor academic performance seems to be related to his lack of focus and distractibility. Report information and teachers comments all support these findings. His inattention in class may be caused by attention deficit

disorder; inability to handle higher-order thinking tasks also should be explored.
In view of these findings, I feel that screening him for special education would seem to be in order.

The teacher who wrote the profile was primarily concerned about Don's achievement in relation to other students' and a non-mastery of behavioral objectives.

Step 2: Generate questions that you will attempt to answer as a rationale for the profile. In this step you should look at your description of the problem and formulate questions that need to be solved. The teacher who developed Don's profile used the description to pose 2 questions. Because of her observations of Don's current work and reports of other teachers, the teacher first focused on Don's possible misplacement. The second question was a more general one about the cause of the problem. It allowed the teacher to explore several data sources.

The questions can be about all factors of learning process, for example: student's behavior, motives, values and attitudes toward learning, life experiences, cognitive level, knowledge and skills, physical factors, instructional factors, parental influence, classroom climate and so on.

Step 3: Collect data that will best address the question. After you have decided on the questions you wish to address in the profile, you should determine which data sources to use. Some assessment information has already been collected; other information must be collected by you. Sources of data in schools are numerous and varied. Some data, such as report cards and test scores are readily available in archive. Other data must be collected from other educators in your school, or from parents, from students' works and portfolios. To answer your questions you should choose the best and most direct sources of data. For example, if you want to know about general achievement in an area, you should collect test scores that summarize learning. More specific learning is best explored through student work such as writing samples and projects. Sources of information may include: cumulative record files, parent and student interviews, health records, past-year report cards, test score results, student portfolios, teachers' observations, records and interviews.

Step 4: Answer the questions generated in step 2. After you collect all the relevant data, the next step is to complete the analysis and find a tentative answer to the questions generated in the profile description. In Don's profile above the teacher used her information to answer the questions about misplacement and causes of academic difficulties. All information collected convinced the teacher that the student is misplaced in his classes and that his lack of focus, distractibility and inattention are possible cause of the problem. Each type of data works with other data to create a clearer picture of the student and allows teachers to make better, more informed decisions. So, it's obvious that teachers should use at least 3 different sources of data.

Step 5: Draw conclusions about the data you have collected. After you have collected all the data you need and have found tentative answers to your questions, revisit your original description of the student and situation. What do you know now and what do you need to do next to help the student? In the complete profile of Don the teacher collected all the pieces of information and concluded that her initial observations about the student distractibility were confirmed by test scores and previous teachers comments and grades. Don's distractibility was even apparent in current work – in writing samples that revealed his tendency to lose his train of thought. In view of these findings, the teacher felt that Don should be screened for special education. Preparation of the profile permitted her to make specific statements about his classroom behavior and achievement. All of this information, carefully analyzed and presented, strengthened the teacher's case.

The profile is helpful for clarifying achievement issues and behavior problems. The profile helps teachers draw many-sided conclusions not only one-sided inferences. So teachers can use this tool for further enhancement of communication with students and instruction.

Portfolios

The role of portfolios in assessment

Architects, artists, writers, and performers have used portfolios to represent the quality of their work. Portfolios can also be used in collecting, assessing, and evaluating student work. As described by Johnson and Johnson (1996), a portfolio is an organized collection of evidence accumulated over time on a student's or group's academic progress, achievements, skills, and attitudes. It consists of work samples and a written rationale connecting the separate items into a more complete and holistic view of the student's or group's achievements or progress toward learning goals.

Portfolios can cover one semester, one year or several years. They may present student work in one, several, or all subject areas. They may be presented in file folders, notebooks, boxes, or videodisks. They may be the property of the student or they may be passed from teacher to teacher. Portfolios may contain any relevant item, such as:

- Completed homework, in-class assignments
- Tests (teacher made, curriculum supplied)
- Compositions (essays, reports, stories)
- Presentations (recordings, observations)
- Investigations, inventions, projects
- Logs or journals
- Observation checklists (teacher, classmates)
- Creative products (drawings, paintings, sculptors, pottery, dances etc.)
- Self-reflection and analysis checklists
- Group products
- Evidence of social skills
- Evidence of work habits and attitudes
- Anecdotal records, narrative reports
- Standardized test results
- Photo, autobiographic sketch
- Etc.

According to Johnson and Johnson (1996), portfolios have some advantages:

1. **Portfolios give students the opportunity to direct their own learning** by (a) documenting their efforts, achievements, development, and growth in knowledge, skills, expressions, and attitudes, (b) using a variety of learning styles, modalities, and intelligences, (c) assessing their own learning and deciding which items best represent their achievements and growth, and (d) setting their future learning goals.
2. **Portfolios can be used to determine students' level of achievement.** Portfolios allow students to present a holistic view of their highest academic achievements, skills and competencies.
3. **Portfolios can be used to determine students' growth over time.** Portfolios allow students to present their work over a period of time to show how they are progressing in achieving their learning goals (initial ideas, early drafts, first critiques, interim and final drafts, feedback

from peers and teachers, and some suggestions of how one will build on the current project in future endeavors).

4. **Portfolios can be used to understand how students think, reason, organize, investigate, and communicate.** Portfolios can provide insight into students' reasoning and intellectual competencies by documenting students' progression of thought and work in achieving their learning goals.
5. **Portfolios provide an effective way of collecting and demonstrating achievement on a broad range of outcomes that cannot be assessed as effectively by paper and pencil methods.** Examples of these outcomes include persistence, growth, pride and ownership of work, problem-solving, higher-level thinking, the ability to work with others and self-evaluation.
6. **Portfolios can be used to communicate student efforts, progress toward accomplishing learning goals, and accomplishments** to peers, teachers, parents, and educators of different levels. Portfolios allow students to present their work as a whole in relation to standards and criteria. In addition, portfolios allow teachers and other interested audiences to consider multiple sources of data when they examine what students know and can do.
7. **Portfolios can be used to evaluate and improve curriculum and instruction.** Portfolio provides a broad view on the effectiveness of the curriculum and instruction thereby allowing teachers to improve and enhance their instructional methods and curriculum materials. Portfolios have been found to change instruction as a result of changing the criteria against which student work is evaluated. The use of portfolios has also been found to change the way students' evaluate their own work. Students are taught the criteria against which their work will be judged. This improves their ability to think more deeply and creatively and analyze the strengths and weaknesses of their work. We will discuss Portfolio as a teaching/learning and assessment tool in the next chapter, so further we will stop only on cooperatively creating portfolios as suggested Johnson and Johnson (1996).

Individual portfolios with help from cooperative learning group

The cooperative procedure for using portfolios is similar to that used for peer editing of compositions. The **task** is for each student to create a portfolio. The **criteria for success** are a well-constructed portfolio by each student. The **cooperative goal** is for all group members to verify that each member's portfolio is perfect according to the criteria set by the teacher. Students receive an individual score or grade on the quality of their portfolio. The teacher can also give bonus points based on the quality of all members' portfolios. Each student is **individually accountable** to create his/her own portfolio. The procedure is as follows (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993):

1. The teacher assigns students to cooperative base groups with at least one good reader and writer to each group.
2. The teacher explains individual portfolios, describes the categories of work samples that students will have to place in their portfolios and the criteria that will be used to assess and evaluate each sample.
3. Group members complete a series of individual assignments related to their learning goals with each other's help and assistance. Compositions, for example, go through a peer editing process to ensure that they meet the criteria set by the teacher.
4. Faculty and group members monitor the groups as they work and collect data on interaction among members.
5. Students select work samples from each specified category to include in their portfolio. Each member explains his/her proposed portfolio to the group. Group members give the student feedback concerning the quality of his/her presentation and help him/her choose the specific pieces that best represent the quality of his/her

work (taking into account the assessment criteria) and, therefore, should be included in the student's portfolio. If possible, a chart or graph is drawn showing the student's progress.

6. Faculty conducts a summative evaluation of the student's portfolio.
7. Post conferences are held between (a) the student and the faculty and (b) the student and his/her parents (always with the assistance of teacher).

Group portfolios

The **task** is for each cooperative base group to create a group portfolio (Johnson and Johnson, 1996). The **criterion for success** is that the portfolio meets the criteria specified by the faculty and/or students. The **cooperative goal** is for all group members to verify that the group's portfolio meets the criteria. Each student is **individually accountable** to contribute his/her part of the portfolio and help complete the overall group portions of the portfolio. The procedure is:

1. The teacher assigns students to cooperative base groups with at least one good reader and writer in each group. The teacher structures identity interdependence by having groups choose names, create a group symbol, and so forth.
2. The teacher explains group portfolios, describes the categories of work samples that each group will have to place in their portfolio and the criteria that will be used to assess and evaluate each sample.
3. The group completes a series of group projects (that any one member could not complete alone) related to the learning goals of its members. Examples include creating a new invention using the computer, turning a short story or historical event into a movie/video, Community service learning etc.
4. Group members complete a series of individual assignments related to their learning goals with each other's help and assistance. Presentations, for example, go through peer editing process to ensure that they meet the criteria set by the teacher.
5. Faculty and group members monitor the groups as they work and collect data on interaction among members.
6. Faculty specifies the categories of group and individual work samples that go into the group portfolio.
7. Group members select the group projects to include in the group's portfolio that best represent the quality of learning or progress toward learning goals of the group as a whole (taking into account the assessment criteria).
8. The group includes in its portfolio evidence of teamwork such as charts and graphs documenting constructive patterns of interaction among members. The data result from members' and faculty's observations of the patterns of members' interactions and members' processing and self-assessments of how well the group is functioning. Descriptions of group celebrations are also included.
9. Members select individual work samples from each specified category to include in the group portfolio. Each member explains his/her proposed work samples to group mates. Group members give each member feedback concerning the quality of his/her presentation and help the member choose the specific pieces that best represent the quality of his/her work (taking into account the assessment criteria) and, therefore, should be included in the group's portfolio. If possible, a chart or graph is drawn showing the student's progress.
10. Faculty conducts a summative evaluation of the group's portfolio.
11. Post-conferences are held between (a) the group and the faculty and (b) the cooperative group and member's parents.

Summary

Dear teachers, here is represented a little part of theories and research that exists in the world today. But this part can be understood as basics of the theory of assessment. Things that teachers need today in Armenia. They need to learn how to develop assessment devices that are useful, meet targets and are reliable, valid and fair. Also teachers need to be attentive about formative assessment, which helps enhance the instruction all the time and leads to a better teaching and learning process. Every separate method is good when it is used by teachers involving students, when students are involved in the assessment, assessment itself becomes a means of instruction and in trying to assess or understand assessment, students learn.

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Introduction: Discourse

Since the time of Socrates, the pursuit of knowledge has been characterized by the skillful use of language and patterns of questioning to examine understanding and discover truth. Some twenty-four centuries later, language remains the primary medium and discourse the primary method of teaching and learning. While language is a valuable tool for exploration of most fields of study, the prevalence of oral communication in our lives often leads teachers and students to take language for granted. Educators would benefit from a more conscious understanding of the features and functions of oral communication in the classroom. Once we are made aware of the roles of language in the classroom, we can begin to more closely examine the patterns of language use in the classroom and the effect those established patterns have on the learning process. Realizing the effect of classroom discourse patterns, particularly patterns of questioning, on the material to be learned and the learning process itself is crucial to making appropriate adjustments conducive to achieving the maximum benefits of education in a classroom environment.

The Meaning and Value of Discourse

Discourse analysis is the study of language used by members of a speech community. It looks at both language form and language functions and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. According to Millrood (2002), the difference between discourse and the text is that discourse is “live language”, whereas a text is a “mountain to life”. Discourse processes can certainly be reconstructed from texts, but one needs insight and intuition in order to interpret movement cast in stone” (Millrood, 2002). The participants in the discourse are engaged in the negotiation of meaning creating the connection of series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. Teachers can use discourse analysis not only as a method to raise students’ awareness of language variation, dialect differences, cultural diversity, and history, but also as a tool for studying interactions among

community members, language learners. Discourses refer to actual practices of talking and writing. An analysis of written texts might include a study of topic development and cohesion across the sentences, while an analysis of spoken language might focus on these aspects plus turn-taking practices, opening and closing sequences of social encounters, or narrative structure. Discourse analysis originally developed from a variety of disciplines: sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology.

In the social sciences, a discourse is considered to be an institutionalized way of thinking, a social boundary defining what can be said about a specific topic. Discourses are seen to affect our views on all things; in other words, it is not possible to escape discourse. For example, two distinctly different discourses can be used about various guerrilla movements describing them either as "freedom fighters" or "terrorists". In other words, the chosen discourse delivers the vocabulary, expressions and perhaps also the style needed to communicate.

Discourse is closely linked to different theories of power and state, at least as long as defining discourses is seen to mean defining reality itself, closes the gap.

Discourse is language in use within multiple contexts-textual, social, cultural, and historical. It has to do with the way relationships get mediated by language and other signs-how authors appeal to their audiences, texts apprehend the world they purport to describe, and the human self comes to terms with its many others. The interdisciplinary field of discourse studies pursues questions about the role of language in such issues as how individuals form social identities (including identities based on gender, class, race, ethnicity, occupation, and geographic region), how stereotypes get perpetuated, how writing influences thought, how rhetorical traditions accommodate change, how literary cultures account for nature, how stories advance arguments, and how poems embody diverse voices. (Texas A&M University)

Who Uses Discourse

Students as young as kindergartners and as old as high school seniors use Discourse throughout the school year for a wide variety of learning activities in virtually every subject. Most often, discourse is used in classrooms with personal computing devices

(laptop or handheld computers if there are any in our schools), but it is also commonly used in computer labs with networked desktop computers. Discourse lessons are typically conducted by the classroom teacher, sometimes with the support of the school technology coordinator.

Within all grades, Discourse is commonly used for the following purposes:

- **Core subject areas** — Discourse is used to support instruction in language arts, math, science and social studies.
- **Special needs** — Because it fosters a higher level of engagement, Discourse is often used in special needs situations, such as with special-ed and ESL students and students who are at risk of failing state proficiency tests. Educators appreciate that, with Discourse, students with special needs can be included in the mainstream class activities.
- **Test preparation** — Many schools use Discourse to help students prepare for high-stakes tests.
- **Improve teaching practices** — You'll see right away which of your instructional tactics and lesson plans work and which should be adjusted.
- **Monitor and document student progress as you teach** — Provide real-time, ongoing benchmarks of student progress in meeting state standards.
- **Conduct formative assessment** — With every question, you can instantly see the percentage of students answering correctly and the number of attempts each student made before submitting the correct answer. You'll know immediately if students are following your lesson, while students will instantly see if their answers are correct.
- **Enhance class discussion** — Selected student responses can be sent to the entire class to assist in teacher questioning techniques and foster class discussion.
- **Professional development** — Discourse is increasingly being used as a professional development tool because it ensures full participation and documents outcomes.

Discourse is being used as a tool in higher education settings to generate interactivity in lecture-based courses. Professors report that the higher level of participation and engagement that Discourse fosters helps stimulate discussion and keep students focused. Knowing whether to review a lesson or move on is the key to successful classroom instruction. With Discourse we know instantly if each and every student in the class is following our lesson. For the first time, we get feedback about our instruction *as it occurs* - from every student simultaneously - and we can modify our lesson immediately.

Types of Discourse

There are many different ways to classify discourse. One dimension is the written/spoken distinction resulting in written or spoken texts. Both types of text can be further distinguished according to **register** (level of formality) or **genre** (communicative purpose, audience, and conventionalized style and format). Also, some discourse is largely monologic (where one speaker or writer produces an entire discourse with little or no interaction) while other discourse is dialogic or multiparty in nature (where two or more participants interact and construct discourse together).

The distinction made between speech and writing is often referred to as **channel** (Hymes, 1968) or **medium**, due to the fact a different physiological process is involved in each. Discourse can also be either **planned** or **unplanned**. (Ochs, 1979). Unplanned discourse includes most conversations and some written texts such as informal notes and letters. Planned discourse includes prepared speeches or sermons in oral discourse and carefully edited or published written work.

Interaction and Discourse in Social Studies Classrooms

Brophy and Alleman deal with classroom management in a social studies classroom. They tackle the issue not in the traditional classroom characterized by the teacher acting as the transmitter of knowledge, but in classrooms based on social constructivism. It is claimed that in such classrooms, the teacher acts as a collaborator in the production of knowledge within the classroom. The premise is that when teachers help students construct knowledge through social interaction,

classroom discourse will deepen through more reflective discussion. Especially in a social studies classroom, teachers and students collaborate to develop rules, often formalizing them into a classroom constitution. “ Discourse as Social Interaction between the micro analysis of very detailed structures of talk with the macro analysis of their functions and variation in social structure and culture”(Teun A. Van Dijk,1991).

Discourse, in general terms, refers to actual practices of talking and writing(Woodilla,1998).Our use of the term is somewhat more specific: discourse is defined as an interrelated set of texts, and the practices of their production, dissemination and reception, that brings an object into being (Parker,1992 as cited in Phillips & Hardy,2002). In other words, social reality is produced and made real through discourses and social interactions cannot be fully understood without reference to the discourses that give them meaning. In this chapter, our task is to explore the relationship between discourse and reality discourses are focusing on the fundamental interact ional, social, political, and cultural functions of text and talk, Discourse as social interaction shows that discourse is not merely form and meaning, but also action.

Discourse is language that is generated naturally as people interact (Stubbs, 1983).Classroom talk is considered” medium spoken discourse by which much teaching takes place and during students demonstrate to teachers much of what they have learned”(Cazden,1986,p.432).

The two major forms of discourse in social studies classrooms are recitation and discussion. Some significant research is done explaining how the interactional patterns of recitation and discussion facilitate or constrain students’ acquisition of social studies knowledge. Teachers’ questions and questioning techniques receive considerable attention because of the influence they have on students’ thinking, involvement and learning.

Discussion is analyzed in terms how its definition, purpose, structure and occurrence differ from recitation. Nonquestioning techniques, student questioning, and forms of teacher feedback are emphasized .Different forms of discussion that have been popular during the last 30 years including inquiry, critical thinking about social studies,

exploratory talk, and most recently, responsive teaching –are reviewed(Shaver,1991,p.483).

Recitation

Researchers have found recitation to be the predominant form of discourse in classrooms (Cazden, 1986, Hoetker and Ahlbrand, 1969, Mehan 1978, Stodolsky, 1988).From preschool through the university, the typical recitation pattern is teacher initiation-student response-teacher feedback (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman&Smith, 1966). Recitation persists in Social Studies classroom because of three contextual features .First; there are differences in the power relationships between the teacher and the students. The social context for discourse in the classroom is vastly asymmetrical with the teacher holding most of the basic speaking rights:

Teachers have the right to speak at any time to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt ant speaker; they can speak to a student anywhere in the room and in any volume, tone or voice. And no one has any right to object.(Cazden,1988, p.54).

Secondly, talk in school is constrained because are” extremely crowded environments in which attendance is compulsory” (Cazden, 1979, p. 146).

Finally, a crucial difference between classroom talk and ordinary informal conversation is that teachers react to what students say by rating it positively or negatively (Cazden, 1988, p.30).

The Structure of the Basic Recitation Pattern of Instruction

As a result of investigation, Bellack et al. (1966) analyzed 60 social studies lessons from a unit on international trade. They found that classroom discourse consisted of a teacher solicitation –student response-teacher reaction cycle and that teachers dominated the discourse. Within this cycle, the students’ primary responsibility was to respond to the teacher’s solicitations. Other researchers (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) have exchanged the cycle with teacher initiation- student response-teacher feedback)(IRF).Later Mehan (1982) described it as teacher initiation - student response – teacher evaluation(TRE)

.The Production of Lower Level Thinking and Knowledge Through Questioning and Development of Knowledge and Higher-Level Thinking

Stevens (1912), in her early study on questioning, demonstrated that teachers have emphasized the recall of facts requiring memory-level thinking. The finding has been particularly evident in social studies at all levels and has persisted through today. Based on his review of research, Gall (1970) generalized that 60% of teachers' questions require students to recall facts, 20% require thinking and 20% are procedural in nature. An updated review of review of research by Gall (1984) yielded the same conclusion.

Not all recitations emphasize lower-cognitive –level thinking. There are higher-order “why?” questions that encourage the student to “generalize, infer or develop cause and effect relationship” (Shuy, 1986). If a student is unable to do this, then s/he is asked “when, where, who, how” factual recall questions then moving back up to the “why” question.

Teaching Strategies That Support Meaningful Learning

Some teaching strategies are frequently used to support meaningful learning. Two such strategies are *questioning* and *cooperative learning*.

Questioning. All learning begins by asking questions. The type of questions teachers use guide students' engagement in the lesson (King & Rosenshine, 1993). The amount of time a teacher waits between asking questions and calling on students for responses, or responding to answers, affects student responses (Rowe, 1996). Classroom research has found that teachers, on average, wait less than a second before calling on a student or responding to a student's comment. Waiting 3 or more seconds before calling on a student or acknowledging a response can increase the length of student responses, the number of appropriate responses, and the cognitive level of the responses.

Questions are planned in advance, relate to the lesson activities, and written into lesson plans. Learning cycle lessons begin with questions that all students have a chance to answer, such as, What do you have to do to be elected president? and Why didn't many people settle in Artsakh until the middle of the twentieth century?

These are *open*, or *broad*, questions, which have many answers. Teachers accept all answers even though some answers may explain more than others. Such questions engage all students

in the class. A central **key question** is planned for the exploratory phase of every learning cycle. In a lesson focusing on the concept of presidential election, for example, the teacher may ask the key question, What do you have to do to be elected president? It is an open question that involves each student in thinking about the main idea of the lesson.

During the lesson development phase, questions focus student inquiry on the main concepts, skills, and attitudes of the lesson. After watching a film about the election campaigns of two recent candidates for president, the teacher might ask the question, From whom did each candidate get the money to fund the campaign? and, How much money was spent on television spots by each candidate? These are **closed**, or **narrow**, questions. Their focus is narrow because they have one or few appropriate or correct answers. Most questions during the lesson development are narrow or closed.

During the expansion phase of the lesson, questions are used to help students apply the concept in a new context. Again, the emphasis on open questions is greater although some closed questions may be used. For example, in the case of the presidential election campaign lesson just discussed, the teacher starts with an open question, such as, If you are going to design a winning presidential election campaign, what would it include? Later, the teacher might ask the closed question, What is missing from our design for a winning presidential election campaign?

Cooperative learning

Cooperation is needed in all classroom learning as students share the time and talents of a teacher and learning resources. **Cooperative learning** is an approach and a set of strategies specifically designed to encourage student cooperation while learning.

Because social studies is committed to fostering human and civil behaviors and active, responsible participation in the communities in which people live and work, Cooperative learning should be integrated into the learning and participation of the social studies lessons (Stahl, 1994). Cooperative learning is uniquely suited for social studies because the social skills it teaches are essential to democratic attitudes and beliefs (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). When diverse students are brought together for repeated face-to-face interactions in which they must use cooperative learning procedures, they become more supportive of each other (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

To be successful, group interpersonal skills are carefully planned for, taught, and reinforced by the teacher. The following chart compares behaviors of students and teachers in cooperative groups with their behaviors in traditional classrooms.

Chart

Behaviors of Students and Teachers in Classrooms	
Traditional Classroom	Cooperative Classroom
Do your own work	Work with others to learn
Eyes to front and be quiet	Eye to eye, knee to knee
Listen only to the teacher	Listen to group members
Learn only from teacher / materials	Learn from one's peers within a group
Work alone	Work within a small group as a group
"Silence is golden"	Productive talk is desired
Teacher only makes decisions	Students makes decisions
Learners are passive	Learners are active

Source: "Cultivating Cooperative Group Process, Skills within the Social Studies Classroom," by P> Roy, 1994, in R. J. Stahl (Ed), *Cooperative learning in Social Studies; A handbook for Teachers*, Menlo Park, CA; Addison-Wesley, Used with permission.

Leadership responsibilities for both the content of the success of the group belong to all group members. One student might be the group **recorder**, writing down what decisions are made and keeping notes. Another student might be **materials manager**, collecting materials needed and organizing them. Another student might be the group **organizer**, making sure that everyone has a chance to contribute to discussion and that each person has a clear task to do. Roles usually alternate over time among members of the group.

In social studies activities using cooperative learning, teachers tend to have less difficulty with classroom management. Students assume greater responsibility for materials and help each other by answering questions and assisting in the completion of assignments. Because students

realize they have valid contributions to make, they become even more willing to participate in small-group work (Hannigan, 1990). Students use their creativity to solve more difficult and complex problems than they would be willing to try individually. Social studies teachers are helping students learn to live in their social world: cooperative grouping facilitates this effort.

Questioning Techniques that Result in Student Learning Gains

Question Frequency- Teachers ask a high frequency of questions at all grade levels and in all subject areas (Wilén, in press). Over 75 years ago, Stevens (1912) recorded a mean of 395 questions per day in high school social studies and in English classes. In their review of effective-teaching research, Levin and Long (1981) concluded that teachers generally ask between 300&400 questions per day.

Clarity. Clarity phrased questions communicate response expectations to students. Question clarity increases the probability of precise and accurate responses from students (Wilén, 1987a; Wilén&Clegg, 1986).

Probing. A probe is a follow-up question to a student's initial to the response teacher's question. Probes generally serve the purpose of encouraging students to clarify and expand their responses, support a point of view, or extend their thinking and responding at higher cognitive levels.

Redirection. Redirecting questions to other students communicates the desire for student participation.

Volunteers and Nonvolunteers. Student participation and learning are enhanced if the contributions of volunteering students are balanced with those of nonvolunteering students. Nonvolunteers should be brought into recitations and discussions when the teacher knows a high probability exists that they know the answer or have a contribution to make (Wilén & Clegg, 1986; Wilén, 1987a).

Wait Time. A final, important line of research in relation to classroom discussion and discourse focuses on the pace of interchange and a variable known as wait –time. wait –time is a pause between a teacher's question and a student's response and the teacher's subsequent reaction or follow-up question. There are several reasons explaining why the teachers don't give enough wait-time to the students. One is the

strong cultural norm in our society against silence as it makes many people uncomfortable, and consequently they jump in to keep the conversation moving. Another is that waiting for student responses can be perceived by teachers as threatening to the pace of a lesson. The amount of wait-time should probably be less for direct recall questions and more for questions aimed at higher-level thinking and more complex content. After a student response, teachers should also wait sufficient time before moving on.

Wait time can occur at two points during interaction with students: immediately after a teacher asks a question and before a student responds and immediately after the student responds before the teacher or other student reacts. Teachers typically wait one second after asking a question (Rowe, 1974). After Rowe (1974) trained teachers to increase wait time to 3 to 5 seconds, the quality and quantity of students' responses improved dramatically: length increased, responses reflected higher level thought, failures to respond decreased, and the frequency of student questions increased. Rowe (1987) and Tobin (1987) concluded that a wait time of 3 to 5 seconds is positively correlated with higher –cognitive-level achievement. Other researchers also have come to the same conclusion (Berliner, 1984; Brophy & Good, 1986).

Teacher Feedback .Often teachers use acknowledgements and/or praise following an acceptable student response, anticipating that it will serve as encouragement or further participation. Praise or positive reinforcement has been found to be a positive feedback.

Brophy and Good (1986) claimed that teachers should provide feedback to students in the form of acknowledgement for current answers and portions of answers, and assist students in getting an improved response. Praise is more effective when used sparingly and specifically.

Recitation as characterized by the international pattern of teacher initiation-student response-teacher evaluation has dominated in social studies classrooms more than 80 years. Teachers use recitation for review, for introducing new ideas, for checking to see if students understand material and most often for the recall of facts requiring memory level- thinking. Student achievement can be enhanced by teachers who ask

low-level questions and use techniques such as increased wait time, probing, and redirection. Higher-cognitive level questions are sometimes asked during recitation but do not always lead to corresponding levels of responses.

In order for social studies teachers to accomplish the wide range of citizenship objectives for which they are responsible, they need to develop a repertoire of discourse strategies that includes more than recitation.

Discussion

As Cazden (1988) noted “IRE is the ‘default pattern –what happens unless deliberate action is taken to Achieve some alternative”(p.53).but this recitation pattern may help students display knowledge but not acquire it. The term *discussion* is often used labeled any teacher–student interaction including recitation In this section, discussion is described as” a specific form of discourse that doesn’t include recitation. Discussion segments usually involve longer exchanges between teacher and students and among students than do recitations” (Stodolsky et al., 1981). Wilen (1990) further distinguished discussion from recitation by defining it as an educative and structured group conversation between teacher and students about subject matter at the higher cognitive levels. A key word is *conversation which* suggests that the interaction pattern is informal, involving the exchange of thoughts and feelings.

- *Overview of Classroom Discussion*

Classroom discussion and discourse are central to all aspects of teaching. Effective use of classroom discussion requires an understanding of several important topics pertaining to classroom discourse and discussion. The dictionary definitions of discussion and discourse are almost identical: to engage almost a verbal interchange and to express thoughts on particular subjects. Teachers are more likely to use the term **discussion** since it describes the **procedures** they use to encourage verbal interchange among students. Scholars and researchers are more likely to use the term **discourse** since it reflects their interest in the larger patterns of exchange and

communication found in the classroom (Arneds, R., 2004). The term **discourse** is used to provide the overall perspective about classroom communication described in the section on theoretical support. The term **discussion** is used when specific teaching procedures are described.

Sometimes **discussions** are confused with **recitations**. The difference can be explained in this way, discussions are situations in which teachers and students or students and other students talk with one another and share ideas and opinions .questions employed to stimulate discussion are usually at a higher cognitive level. **Recitations**, on the other, hand, are those exchanges, such as in a direct instruction lesson, in which teachers ask students a series of lower-level questions or factual questions aimed at checking how well they understand a particular idea or concept.

Discussions are used by a teacher to achieve at least three important instructional objectives.

First, discussion improves students' thinking and helps them construct their own understanding of academic content. Discussing a topic helps students strengthen and extend their knowledge of the topic and increase their ability to think about it.

Second, discussion promotes students engagement and involvement. Research, as well as the wisdom of experienced teachers, demonstrates that for true learning to take place, students must take responsibility for their own learning and not depend solely on a teacher.

Third, discussion is used by teachers to help students learn important communication skills such as stating ideas clearly, listening to others, responding to others in appropriate ways and asking good questions.

Depending on teacher's goal for a particular lesson and the nature of the students involved, discussions can be different ,but they all share the same five-phase syntax: explaining the aims of the lesson, focusing and holding the discussion, bringing the discussion to a conclusion, and debriefing the discussion. The learning environment and management system surrounding the discussion are incredibly important. The environment for conducting discussions is characterized by open processes and active student roles. It also demands careful attention to the use of physical space. The students themselves, control the specific minute –to minute interactions .This

approach to teaching requires a large degree of student self –management and control.

- *Theoretical and empirical support*

Much of the theoretical support for the use of discussions stems from the fields in which the scholars study language , communicative processes and patterns of exchange. These studies extend to every setting in which human beings come together. To consider the role of language, we can think about every day situations in which success depends largely on the use of language and communication.

Friendship, for instance, are initiated and maintained mainly through language- friends talk and share experiences with one another. Families maintain their unique histories by building patterns of discourse, sometimes in the form of secret codes that are natural to family members but are strange to outsiders. such as new in-laws. Youth culture develops special patterns of communication that provide member identity and group cohesion.

Discourse through language is also central to what is going on in classrooms.

Cazden (1986) wrote that “spoken language is the medium by which much teaching takes place and in which students demonstrate to teachers to what they have learned “(p.432) Spoken language provides the means for students to talk about what they already know and to form meaning from new knowledge as it is acquired Spoken language affects the thought processes of students and provides them with their identity as learners and as members of the classroom group.

Discourse and Cognition

A strong relationship exists between thinking and language and both lead to the ability to analyze, to reason deductively and inductively and to make sound effectively based on knowledge.

Discourse and thinking. Discourse is one way for students to practice their thinking processes and to enhance their thinking skills. Mary Rowe (1986) summarizes this important point nicely:

To “grow”, a complex thought system requires a great deal of shared experience and conversation. It is talking about what we have done and observed and arguing about what we make of our experiences, that ideas multiply, become refined, and finally produces new questions and further explorations (p.43).

In some way, discourse can be thought of as the *externalization of thinking*—that is,

exposing one’s invisible thought for others to see. Through discussions, then, teachers are given a window for viewing thinking skills of their students and a setting for providing correction and feedback when they observe incomplete reasoning. Students can hear their own thinking and to learn how to monitor their own thinking processes. Learners don’t acquire knowledge simply by recording new information on a blank slate, instead, they actively build knowledge structures over a period of time as they interpret new knowledge and integrate it into a prior knowledge.

Social aspect of discourse. One aspect of classroom discourse, then, is its ability to promote cognitive growth. Another aspect is to connect and unite the cognitive and the social aspects learning. Classroom discourse system is central to creating positive learning environments. It helps define participation patterns and, consequently, has a great deal of impact of classroom management.

Classroom Discourse Patterns

Working from a variety of perspectives, researchers have found a discourse pattern that has remained consistent over a very long period of time. They have also found

that the traditional pattern is not necessarily the best for promoting full student participation and higher level thinking.

We are familiar with the basic pattern, labeled the initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) model by Cazden (1986, 1996) and Burbules and Bruce (2001). The model consists of three phases:

1. Initiation: Teacher asks a question over the lesson.
2. Response: Students raise their hands and reply.
3. Evaluation: Teacher evaluates the response with praise or corrects the response. Teachers often answer the question themselves with a short lecture.

The pace of this pattern is rapid. The teacher talks most of the time and only a few students participate. The pattern is still with us today. Despite its potentially harmful effects and an endless effort to modify the IRE model of discourse, recent research (Burbules, 1993; Nystrand et. al., 1997) has confirmed that most schooling continues to be based on this “transmission and recitation model of communication” (Nystrand et. al. 1997, p.xiv).

Recitation teaching relies on teacher’s talking and asking questions. The ways teachers ask questions and the types of questions they ask have been the focus of considerable inquiry and concern for quite some time. Because questions are asked so often in classrooms, an obvious concern is what effects they have on student learning. In fact, what is the effect of factual and higher-order-questions on student learning and thinking? Studies have resulted in conflicting conclusions regarding the benefits of higher –order questioning over fact –based question-and-answer sessions. The former lead to greater cognitive growth than that resulting from more concrete, factual questions (Arends, 2004).

- Emphasis on fact questions involves primarily mastery of basic skills.
- Emphasis on higher cognitive questions requires independent thinking.

Another issue should be taken into account, i.e. level of difficulty which refers to students’ ability to answer questions correctly regardless to cognitive level. No questions should be so difficult that students will not be able to respond at all.

Although recitation is often overused, it nonetheless has its place. One important use is when teachers ask students to listen to or read about the information on a particular topic.

A reading assignment in history may vary in length from a paragraph to whole book. Teachers usually ask students to read or listen with a definite purpose in mind. Sometimes it is to glean important information about the topic, whereas at other times it is to become familiar with a particular author, a specific type of literature, a point of view or particular interpretation. Brief question –and–answer sessions (recitation discussions) about assigned reading materials or a lecture can provide teachers with a means of checking students understanding .They also motivate students to complete their assignments when the teacher is talking.

Planning and Conducting Discussion Lessons

Effective discussion require that teachers perform planning, interactive management, adaptive, and assessment tasks. Planning and interactive tasks are described in this section, followed by a discussion of management and assessment tasks.

Planning for Discussion Two common misconceptions held by many teachers are that planning for a discussion requires less effort than planning for other kinds of teaching and that discussions can not really be planned at all because they rely on spontaneous and unpredictable interactions among students. The planning should be beforehand.

Consider Purpose–Deciding that discussion is appropriate for a given lesson is the first planning step. Although the particular uses of discussion are practically infinite, teachers generally want their discussion to accomplish one of the three objectives: to check for students understanding of reading assignments or presentations through recitations, to teach thinking skills, or to share experiences.

Consider students- Knowing about the level of students' prior knowledge for planning discussions is as important as for planning other kinds of lessons teachers must take also students' communication and discussion skills. Motivate them to be involved in it.

Choose an approach. There are several different kinds of discussions and an approach should reflect

teacher's purposes. Three discussions are discussed: recitations, inquiry or problem-based discussion (when students are engaged in higher-order thinking and, thereby, encouraged for intellectual investigation), sharing-based discussion (when students share meaning from common experiences or to confront one another with differences in opinion).

Make a Plan. A lesson plan for a discussion consists of a set of objectives and a content outline. The plan should include not only targeted content but also well-conceived focus statement, the description of a puzzling event, and/or a list of questions. The discussion is to follow a lecture, it is likely that the teacher already has the content firmly in mind and has explored the important conceptual relationship. When the discussion follows assigned readings, experienced teachers know that they must have extensive notes not only about specific facts, but more important, about the main ideas, points of views highlighted in the reading. For some types of discussions asking students questions becomes a key feature. In preparing their questioning strategy, teachers need to consider both cognitive level of questions and their level of difficulty.

There are also questions that should be avoided in a discussion. Sandra Metts (2002) (www.cat@ilstu.edu) offered four types of questions that teachers should not ask:

- The Dead-end Questions: a question requiring only a "yes/no" response. This question goes nowhere (e.g., "can animals communicate?").
- The Chameleon Question: A question that begins in one direction and then switches to a different direction (e.g., "If language requires both symbols and rules, can animals have language? That is if a chimpanzee can be taught to make a sing for banana, does it have language?").
- The Fuzzy Question: A question that is unclear or confusing (e.g., "What do you think about animals communicating?").

- The Put-down Question: A question that is largely rhetorical, minimizes legitimacy of a comment, and or closed down additional discussion (e.g., "Can we all see why Mary's solution is not feasible?").

Teachers can also use Bloom's Revised Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Question Types According to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Cognition process	Examples of Questions	Type of Cognition Required to Answer
Remember	In which region of the United States is Ohio? What does H ₂ O stand for?	Retrieving factual knowledge
Understand	What is the difference between longitude and latitude? What is the book <i>The Old Man and the Sea</i> about?	Constructing meaning
Apply	If John has 12 feet of lumber, how many 2-foot-long boards can he make? In which of the situations would Newton's second law apply?	Applying or using principles or procedures.
Analyze	Why do some trees lose their leaves in winter? How does Hemingway's view of war reflect the political ideology of his time?	Explaining relationships or overall purposes
Evaluate	Which novel do you think is the best piece of literature? What do you think about the city's recycling program?	Making judgment based on criteria and standards
Create	In the North had not won the Civil war, what would life be like in the United States today? What if John Brown had succeeded at Harpers Ferry?	Generating hypotheses

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Grading Classroom Discussions

Grading classroom discussions can cause some problems for many teachers. On one hand, if the participation is not graded, students can think that this part of work is less important than work for which grades are given. On the other hand, it is difficult to quantify participation in any satisfactory way. In this sense, the teacher should ask "Do I reward quality or quantity?" or "What about the students who talk all the time but says nothing?" There are two ways experienced teachers have confronted this dilemma. One is to give bonus points to students who consistently appear to be prepared for discussions who make significant contributions. A second way to grade discussions is to have students do reflective writing assignment based on the discussion.

For whole –class discussions to be successful, some rather sophisticated communication and instruction skills are needed on the part of both teachers and students. It also requires norms that support open exchange and mutual respect. The syntax for most discussions consists of five phases: establishing set, focusing the discussion, holding the discussion, bringing it to a close and debriefing. As discussion leader, a teacher should focus the discussion, keep it on track, encourage participation and keep a visible record of it.

Syntax for Holding Conducting Discussions

Phase	Teacher Behavior
Phase 1: Clarify aims and establish set.	Teacher goes over the aims for the discussion and gets students ready to participate.
Phase 2: Focus the discussion.	Teacher provides a focus for discussion by

	describing ground rules, asking situation, or describing a discussion issue.
Phase 3: Hold the discussion.	Teacher monitors students' interactions, asks questions, listens to ideas, responds to ideas, enforces the ground rules, keeps records of the discussion, and expresses own ideas.
Phase 4: End the discussion.	Teacher helps bring the discussion to a close by summarizing or expressing the meaning the discussion has had for him or her.
Phase 5: Debrief the discussion.	Teacher asks students to examine their discussion and thinking processes.

Classroom Discourse Patterns: A Final Thought

There is almost universal agreement among scholars and researchers that for real learning to occur, a different discourse pattern than the one currently found in most classrooms must be established. When asked, how they are going to teach, most beginner teachers will attest to the importance of providing opportunities of students to discuss important topics and to exchange ideas with each other and with the teacher. Yet, year after year, classroom observers say, this is not happening. Teachers continue to dominate the talk that goes on in classroom by presenting information and giving direction for students to follow. When they ask students questions, most of them require direct recall rather than higher –level thinking. If students don't answer immediately, the teacher asks another question or calls on another student. All of this takes place in a very rapid pace. We know from the research that teacher dominance of classroom discourse patterns and rapid pace of this discourse are harmful. We also know that slowing down the pace of discourse and using different discourse patterns such as think-pair-share will produce more and better student thinking. The think-pair-share strategy has grown out of the cooperative learning and wait- time research. This

approach is an effective way to change the discourse in a classroom. It challenges the assumption that all recitations or discussions need to be held in whole -group settings and it has built-in procedures for giving students more time to think and to respond and to help each other. Here is how think-pair-share works.

Step1 –Thinking: The teacher poses a question or an issue associated with the lesson and asks students to spend a minute thinking alone about the answer or the issue. Students must be taught that talking is not part of the thinking time.

Step2-Pairing: Next, the teacher asks the students to pair off and discuss what they have been thinking about. Interaction during this period can be sharing answers if the question has been posed or sharing ideas if a specific issue was identified. Usually, teachers are allowed no more than four or five minutes for pairing.

Step3-Sharing: In the final step, the teacher asks the pairs to share what they have been talking about with the whole class. It is effective to simply go around the room from pair to pair and continue until about the fourth or a half the pairs have had a chance to report.

Teachers must be aware of gender discourse differences as well as those that stem from race and class .To be effective, they must adapt discussions to meet the diverse language patterns of their students.

Inquiry

Inquiry learning related to Science/Social Studies

Inquiry learning can turn information into useful knowledge and promote understanding. Inquiry learning techniques are very popular for science, social studies, especially in the West; however, inquiry has great value. It stresses skill development and nurtures the development of good habits of mind. Information, lacking a useful context, often has limited applications beyond passing a test. In the areas of science having real life, authentic hands on learning that involves physical objects is important for inquiry. Students should discover principles and concepts

through experimentation and using methods of thinking to reason and solve based on their observations of certain phenomena. With social studies kinesthetic artifacts, models and time lines should show events and circumstances and technology of past and present topics, and represent a form of “hands-on” social studies.

Part of Inquiry based learning in the Science and Social Studies is more than acquiring certain information. In addition, the process of acquiring that information is important in teaching the students thinking skills related to the subject areas. Knowing how we came to a conclusion is as important as knowing the solution itself. Finding the solution most often comes through questioning. Questions are at the heart of inquiry learning. In an inquiry classroom, the teacher asks questions that are more open and reflective in nature which leads to finding the solutions.

Another question arises of what inquiry learning looks like in the classroom. Does inquiry learning mean that students are always engaged in activities and lab exercises with little or no help from the instructor? I believe the answer is “no”. Teachers often discount the fact that when they are giving talks or lectures to students, those students are applying, listening and observing skills. If teachers focus more how we come to know information by presenting evidence and information encouraging student questioning, then talks can even become powerful inquiry models for students.

An example, from a geology lecture: While discussing the internal structure of the earth layers or “what we know”. But what really is important and intriguing for the student is the ‘how do we know?’ about these structures. No one has been down there and physical probes have only scratched the surface. To enhance Inquiry learning the teacher should explain inquiry is for the student to do, not for them to watch the teacher do the indirect scientific evidence, mainly the transmission and reflection of different kinds of earthquake waves provides much of our understanding about the internal structure of the earth.

This approach provides the students not only to learn the names and sizes of the structures but more importantly, to ponder and question the nature of indirect scientific

evidence as well. Thus, inquiry approach can help students connect science with the scientific method. This is true for all of the sciences and Social Studies as well.

Inquiry in Social Studies

In recent years “inquiry” has generated a great deal of discussion among social studies teachers. All of this interest has resulted in the term *inquiry's* being used in a variety of ways. There is broad agreement that inquiry-oriented instruction introduces content to students through an *inductive* process. Inductive learning proceeds from the specific to the general.

Inductive learning contrasts with *deductive* learning which proceeds from general to specific highlighting the characteristics of the new concept.

As early as 1910, Dewey suggested some steps of inquiry-oriented instruction. With some variation, the following steps generally are followed in teaching a lesson according to an inquiry approach:

Step 1: Identify and describe the essential dimensions of a “problem”.

Step 2: Suggest possible solutions to the problem or explanations of the problem

Step 3: Gather evidence related to these solutions or explanations

Step 4: Evaluate possible solutions or explanations of the problem In the light of evidence.

Step 5: Students consider all available evidence and arrive at conclusions.

These steps highlight the basic objective of the inquiry approach that is; to help students to develop the sort of rational thinking abilities that will serve them well throughout their adult lives, to help students focus on issues, identify and evaluate evidence and develop supportable conclusions. The key point of inquiry-oriented instruction is that the focus is on teaching students a thinking process. Dewey's suggestion is treated with some other angle in contemporary approaches within further new research. John Dewey's ideas about problems are still relevant (Orlich, D., et al., 2004). Among his major educational contributions was his advocacy of a

curriculum based on problems. He defined a problem as anything that gives rise to doubt and uncertainty. Dewey held that a problem, to be an appropriate topic of study, had to meet two rigorous criteria: it had to be important to the culture, and had to be important and relevant to the student.

Certainly, new content is conveyed during inquiry-based instruction, but interest in having students master the specifics of this content is secondary to the interest in having them internalize the *process* of making rational decisions (Armstrong, 1980). The research is done to promote learning through inquiry approach and what the research does show is that few differences in student achievement seem directly related to the use of inductive or inquiry-based instruction or deductive instruction. It may be whether instruction is organized inductively or deductively may not be so important as some other variables (Armstrong, 1980). For example, the issue of how students perceive social studies instruction might be much more important factor affecting their learning in social studies classes.

Another explanation has been forwarded related to the fact that the two instructional orientations cannot be compared by using a test designed to assess only a single kind of thinking. It should be stated that there is some evidence that inductive or inquiry approaches and deductive approaches teach students different things, an implication for social studies teachers is that their repertoire ought to include both inductive and deductive frameworks for organizing learning experiences. In determining whether an Inquiry –oriented or inductive approach is to be preferred over a deductive approach in a given situation, the teacher must give consideration to the question of the instructional purpose. Tanner and Tanner (1975) point out that unless instructional purposes are identified as a preface to instructional planning, selection of an inductive or of a deductive approach cannot be made on a logical basis: "Discussion regarding methods is meaningless when conducted outside the context of objectives, and uncomfortably similar to an attempt to compare walking, swimming and taking a train; no conclusion is rationally possible until we know where we want to go and how long we have to get there". For objectives designed to promote students' decision making skills, an inductive or inquiry approach may be the better choice. For objectives related to mastery of specific bodies of subject matter content, a case might be made

for selecting a deductive approach. This shows how we have matured in our understanding of doing inquiry especially in social studies.

Summary

Discussion is structured conversation in which the participants work cooperatively to present, examine, compare and understand often diverse views about an academic topic or issue. Discussion more closely approximates natural conversation than recitation because it is slower paced and not driven by the questions or evaluations of one person. Discussions can be used to accomplish purposes that might not be easily achieved with recitation ,including introducing students to differing points of view ,encouraging the exploration of student ideas, critical thinking and engaging students in group problem-solving. Different forms of discussion have been developed over time. In inquiry and exploratory talk, the discussion is driven by questions initiated by the students, and the answers to the questions are not known in advance. The teacher's relationship with the students shifts toward being a collaborator rather than an evaluator. The recitation pattern of IRE is the primary forms of discourse used in social studies classrooms Teachers persist in using questions to recall factual information for purposes of review, to introduce new information, and to evaluate student knowledge. Accordingly, if we are to understand the discourses and their effects, we must also understand the context in which they arise (Sherzer, 1987; van Dijk, 1997a, as cited in Phillips & Hardy, 2002).”Discourse is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking context into consideration. Discourses are always connected to other discourses which were produced earlier and as well as those which are produced subsequently. As texts are not meaningful individually, it is only through their interconnection with other texts that they made meaningful.

“One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the classroom is to allow students themselves to study language in use, that is to make them discourse analysts” (Celce Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).In discourse-oriented reading, learners are allowed to negotiate their interaction with the text by constantly being involved in making choices and decisions with respect to the text. In the social studies classroom

the students become more independent and initiate learning activities whereas the teacher becomes reflective. They both enjoy these naturalistic data.

Overview of Classroom Discussion

- Discourse and discussion are key ingredients for enhancing student thinking and uniting the cognitive and social aspects of learning.
- When experienced teachers refer to classroom discourse, they often use the label discussion to describe what they are doing. Classroom discussions are characterized by students and teachers talking about academic materials and by students willingly displaying their thinking processes publicly.
- Discourse can be thought of as externalization of thinking and has both cognitive and social importance.
- The primary instructional goals of a discussion lesson are to improve student thinking, to promote involvement and engagement in academic materials, and to learn important communication and thinking skills.
- The general flow or syntax for a discussion lesson consists of five major phases: provide objectives and set; focus the discussion and debrief the discussion.
- The structure of the learning environment for discussion lessons is characterized by open processes and active student roles.

Theoretical and empirical Support

- Studies for a good many years have described how discourse patterns in most classrooms do not afford effective dialogue among students or promote much discovery or higher-level thinking.
- A substantial knowledge base exists that informs teachers on how to create positive discourse systems and to hold productive discussions. Studies also provide guidelines about the types of questions to ask and how to provide appropriate pacing for students to think and to respond.

- Most classroom discourse proceeds at too rapid a pace. Teachers can obtain better classroom discourse by slowing down the pace and giving themselves and their students' opportunities to think before they respond.

Planning and Conducting Discussions Lessons

- An Important planning task for a discussion lesson is deciding on which approach to use. There are several kind of discussions. Major approaches include using discussion in conjunction with other teaching models; recitation discussions; discovery or inquiry discussions; and discussions to clarify values and share personal experiences.
- Other important planning tasks for teachers to consider include determining the purposes of the discussion; begin aware of students' prior knowledge and discourse skills; making plans for how to approach the discussion; and determining the type of questions to ask.
- Placing students in circles or using U-shaped seating arrangements facilitates classroom discussions.
- Primary tasks for teachers as they conduct discussion consist the of focusing the discussion; keeping for discussion on track; keeping a record of the discussion; listening to students' ideas and providing appropriate wait-time.
- Teachers should respond with dignity to student' ideas. They should help students extend their ideas by seeking clarification, getting students to consider alternative ideas, and labeling students' thinking processes.
- Teachers must be aware of gender discourse difference as well as those that stem from race and class. To be effective, they must adept discussions to meet diverse language patterns of their students.

Managing the Learning Environment

- In general, discussion and classroom discourse patterns can be improved if teachers slow the pace and use methods to broaden participation and if they teach students to try to understand one another and have high interpersonal regard for each other's ideas and feelings.

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ISSUES-CENTERED EDUCATION

Issue-centered education focuses on problematic questions that need to be addressed and answered, at least provisionally. Problematic questions are those on which intelligent, well-informed people may disagree. Such disagreement, in many cases, leads to controversy and discussion marked by expression of opposing views. The questions may address problems of the past, present or future. They may involve disagreement over facts, definitions, values and beliefs. Answers may be rooted in a person's background, in formal knowledge accumulated in disciplines, and in „common sense,, experience. Examples of such problematic questions on the topic of governmental powers include:

- What is a legitimate government and where does its power originate?
- When should governmental authority be ignored rejected?
- Should student newspapers have the same right to freedom of the press as other newspapers?
- Should I write a letter to the principal to protest censorship?

To say that questions are problematic means there are no conclusive, finally „right,, answers. But some answers, however tentative or provisional and subject to change in the future, are clearly better or more valid than others. The purpose of issue-centered education is not just to raise the questions and expose students to them, but to teach students to offer defensible and intellectually well-grounded answers to these questions. Judgments about the validity of some answers may depend upon the context in which the judgment is offered. But issue-centered education should not be construed as people expressing biases and values that cannot be reconciled. The point of issue-centered education is just the opposite: to develop well-reasoned based on disciplined inquiry, on thoughtful, in-depth study and to move beyond relativistic notions of truth.

Ultimately, an issues-centered approach to social studies aims at empowering the learner. There is an opinion, that social studies should help us solve everyday problems in our lives, help us develop personal and social relationships. „This is not critical thinking for the sake of debate, argument or logical reasoning, but for constructive change, for the transformation of society,, (Alquist 1990). For many advocates of issues-centered approaches, the approach also includes developing a critical consciousness, or „concretization,, This means developing skills in perspective consciousness, the ability to recognize, examine, evaluate and appreciate multiple perspectives on a particular issue or concern, including perspectives critical of mainstream institutions and social practice.

Curriculum implication

Important social issues may arise in the study of a variety of disciplines and human affairs, and there is no inherent curricular logic or sequence in which they should be studied. It must be left up to teachers and curriculum developers to arrange and organize topics and select the most fundamental content. These arrangements might follow variety of structures (chronological, thematic, discipline-based concepts, problem-topics, etc.).

1. Topics must be studied in sustained ways that introduce student to important complexities and details. For example, in a unit on the American Revolution, student must explore the issues listed in the previous section. To make the study of these issues most meaningful, the students will need to develop an understanding of the context in which colonial protests occurred. They will need to study specific instances in which governmental power was challenged in sufficient depth and with enough detail to appreciate the multiply perspectives they will discuss, and to provide sufficient evidence for quality decision making.
2. Topics and issues need to be connected through some kind of thematic, disciplinary, interdisciplinary or historical structure. Simply studying one issue after another will fail to give students the intellectual structure they need to organize and think about relationships among various issues and how their resolution might add to social justice. Where feasible, these structures need to be developed both within individual classes and grade levels so they flow logically and build on previous learning.
3. The study of issues must be substantively grounded in challenging content. A simple sharing of opinions is not sufficient. This will require teaching students forms of reasoning, interrogation and presentation of evidence, and also the mastery of concepts and theories and bring expert knowledge to bear in understanding persistent and consideration of alternatives not commonly included in the curriculum. The study of issues, if it is to lead to development of in-depth understanding, must also include content from historical cases, literature art and music.
4. Students must experience influence and control in the inquiry process. A delicate, judicious balance should be struck between teacher guidance in selection of issues and materials to be studied and student choices in their own education. Content selection in a productive issues-centered curriculum is responsive to students' interest, their prior knowledge, and the local school and community context. Issue-centered teaching has long been associated with liberal-progressive social ideas, but the approach to teaching issues does not prevent teachers from applying traditional methods of teaching such as lectures, objective testing, memory reliance, or repetition to complement the many issue-centered techniques.

Implication for Teaching Practice

There are no particular techniques or practices that “work” all the time. Effective pedagogy is responsive to special conditions of the teachers, courses and students. However, teaching will be most effective if guided by principles such as the following:

1. Issues must take the form of truly problematic questions, even for teacher. Although the teacher will have more knowledge about the issues than students, the teacher must involve in the continual learning, in part by considering the students.
2. In working out well-reasoned positions in issues, students will need access to a variety of resources and tools that extend beyond the teacher and the classic textbooks-books, articles, newspapers, the opportunity to interview other adults in the community, interaction with peers in their class. The study of the issues is often enhanced through use of multiple resources drawn from several disciplines and by taking historical perspective.

3. Students need continuous practice in using extended oral and written language. Students can't learn how to offer sound responses to issues by speaking in three word phrases. They have to learn to weave thoughts and evidence together in sentences, to construct reasoned and well grounded arguments. This use of language can be assisted and complemented through symbolic art and graphics and physical models, but ultimately should be expressed in the form of students' oral and written text.
4. A major pedagogical challenge for teachers is to learn how to help students feel comfortable with the cognitive ambiguity that issues-centered education introduces. Not being able to find the "right", conclusive answer is often troubling for both youth and adults. Teachers will need to help students see how they make intellectual progress by expanding their understanding, even though they may not achieve complete certainty.

A RATIONALE FOR ISSUES-CENTERED EDUCATION

Issues-centered education is a curriculum that uses public issues to emphasize controversial questions as the content for social studies. It is an approach toward teaching and learning that does not intend to provide right answer, but underscores the need for students to learn how to examine significant questions and become more thoughtful decision makers about public life. An issue-centered approach highlights the critical of social practices through the direct study of persistent and compelling social issues. It requires analyses and evaluation of evidence, values and decision making.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a set of concepts for educators to employ at all levels when developing a rationale for an issues-centered curriculum. Since issue-centered education represents an educational trust that deviates from conventional social studies, which emphasizes history, geography, textbooks, questions at the end of chapters, and the lecture method, it behooves its proponents to advance a rationale statement that justifies this curriculum as an alternative to current social studies practice.

The Need for a Rationale

The needed curriculum emphasizes the issues that citizens persistently face—from those concerning the environment to issues of pluralism and distribution of wealth—using the social science disciplines, where appropriate, to substantially deepen student understanding.

Another silent value, derived from the belief, that democracy is preferred over other political systems, holds that democratic citizens must rise above pure self-interest and be sensitive to the needs of others and the common good. Addressing the tension between self-centeredness and the public welfare is fundamental to cohesion in a free society. The tension is evident in such question as:

1. Should I support the building of an incinerator in my community despite its impact on the environment?
2. Should the community build a new library even if it means higher taxes for me?

3. Should the country change its health-care systems to cover all citizens even if it means that I will not be able to choose my own doctor?

Issues-centered education would bring selected issues to the forefront, guiding citizens to think of the public welfare, not confining themselves to their own interest.

Professional educators, parents, community persons, and school board members should collaborate when developing a rationale developing statement for issues-centered education. They must view their work as a starting point that represents initial thinking about the purpose and reasons for a particular curriculum. They must also understand that complete agreement among these groups is not possible. The rationale is a constructed statement of goals –well developed, clearly defined, and reconsidered regularly.

Concepts that may serve as a guide in developing issues-centered education are:

- Key democratic values (such as freedom, equality, due process, justice, etc.)
- The nature of knowledge (interdisciplinary focus on issues with supporting content from the social science disciplines and the humanities)
- The nature of teachers and teaching (focusing of the shift from authoritarian to facilitative, probing, and interactive teaching).
- The nature of learners and learning (intellectual development and cultural development and cultural background of students)
- The nature of society, domestic and global, including all aspects of diversity.

The Rational for Issues-Centered Education			
CONCEPT	EVANS	SHAYER	ENGLE & OCHOA
Nature of knowledge	Knowledge is tentative, not absolute, and is always in need of verification, The thoughtful citizen is always skeptical of truth claims. There is little, if any knowledge that can be defined as absolutely essential, yet knowledge is critically important to the complete understanding of social issues.	Knowledge is seen as both tentative and testable. It is relevant when it provides insight into social dilemmas. Knowledge that concerns citizens provides the for testing truth claims whether they are found in the disciplines, in social issues, or in the interests and experiences of the learner. This view of knowledge is interdisciplinary.	Since knowledge is tentative in nature, all claims to knowledge may raise questions and foster skepticism. Content (knowledge) and intellectual processes are inextricably intertwined. The social science disciplines strengthen the understanding of social issues. Students investigate truth claims from textbooks, lectures, video, and/or newspapers. This view of knowledge is interdisciplinary.
Nature of teacher and teaching	Teaching is a facilitative process that helps students define issues and resolve problems. It is not merely a matter of direct teaching or textbook reading.	The jurisprudential model of teaching helps the learners learn how to resolve public issues. Based on Socratic dialogue, it seeks to challenge students thinking about their choices and decisions, as the values involved in such choices. Teachers are more than facilitators; they pose areas of conflict in values, focus students on the need to justify their position on issues, and consistently probe students for the strongest evidence justification possible.	Teaching is highly interactive: teacher and students are both learners and teachers concurrently. The teacher and students are both learners and teachers concurrently. The teacher facilitates, probes, and learns. Students investigate, probe their fellow learner as the teacher, and are engaged in the rigorous study of social issues, which involves intellectual analysis, decision making , and social action.
Nature of	Learning is an active and reflective process engaged in	Learners must be viewed as citizens who, if properly	Learners are curious and this curiosity can be tapped to enhance learning.

learners and learning	by learners who are more likely to be energized by examining contemporary and controversial issues than by chronological treatments of history.	motivated, can be energized to be concerned about social issues, both public and private. Learning is an active and reflective intellectual process that is intricately tied to the content and processes needed to address public issues. To build effective citizens for a democracy, learners must confront these matters in intellectually thoughtful ways.	Socialize the young to democratic values by way of biographies of heroes and heroines. Counter socialize youth to foster independent thought and social criticism that is crucial to political freedom.
Nature of society	Whether conceived at domestic or global levels, society is problematic, conflictive, and constantly changing. These public issues impact our lives, whether we give deliberate thought to them or not. It is the thoughtful analysis of social issues and how they impact the lives of citizens and people everywhere that must form the basis of the social curriculum in a democracy.	Society , especially a democratic one, is plagued by value dilemmas (conflict) that need thoughtful and critical attention by its citizens if confliction issues are to be alleviated or resolved. Conflict characterizes democratic public life.	Society , both global and domestic, is persistently problematic, confliction, and pluralistic. It is constantly changing. In recent years there has been fairly wide-spread recognition that many issues facing citizens in this democracy have not only implied domestic obligations but also manifest a global reality. Such issues may be addressed in many parts of the school curriculum.
diversity	Not explicitly addressed	Not explicitly addressed	Not explicitly addressed

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ISSUES-CENTERED EDUCATION

Characterized by strong emphases on the theory and practice of reflective inquiry, decision-making, and the critical examination of core values, beliefs, institutions and behaviors in society, a substantial body of literature emerged to reorient social studies education towards the study of social issues and public policy at all levels of schooling. New man is key organizing principle, while textbooks in a variety of subject areas, such as world history, civics and government, and economics utilized issues-centered themes to organize content.

The schools must undertake the role of creatively examining and reconstructing the culture. Classroom inquiry into social problems that provides support for open-ended discussions and investigations of societal issues, placing the critical examination of values at the center of inquiry. Students hold emerge from their social studies education with a better understanding of human behavior, values and feelings based upon the discovery, testing and use of valid concepts and generalizations in the humanities and social sciences.

This premise connects to the need to defend and promote real human freedom to make choices about competing solutions to ethical dilemmas and public policy options. In a pluralistic society, **1.** the maintenance of human dignity and individual freedom can therefore only exist when diverse groups recognize that some problems require everyone to address them; **2.** members of all societal subgroups share a set of value commitments and a normative

vocabulary that serve as a framework to deal with common problems; and **3.** this normative framework includes procedures for mediation of interpersonal and intergroup conflict.

The curricular content and instructional strategies emphasize the in-depth study of public issues laden with value conflicts.

Teacher-dominated instruction ignoring the lived experiences of students can not be liberatory education. Thus, liberatory education seeks to reinvent and reconstruct society as students learn how to critique social experience and "illuminate reality" by linking subject matter content to its economic and social class origins.

Teacher authoritarianism is rejected as contradictory in spirit and purpose to working with the students to interpret reality. At the same time, liberatory pedagogues retain justifiable authority in the classroom because they have substantial knowledge and expertise in designing educational experiences which facilitate student critical reflection about society.

Discussion is the preferred core instructional strategy. Discussion is directed by the teacher, but the parameters are defined by the interests, experiences and motivation of the students, linked to the concepts introduced and explained by the teacher as the dialogue proceeds.

Networks of liberatory pedagogues are necessary to link teachers in schools with educators in unions, social movements, community centers, and other sites. Substantive social change can't be the sole responsibility of mass public schooling, because the efforts to make education "liberatory" face strong resistance, often embedded in the cultural backgrounds of students and the efforts by conservative policy-makers to limit widespread access to higher education.

Core concepts and main and organizing ideas are the basis for the development and organization of knowledge in this program. Employing a spiral structure, the authors divide all instructional objectives into the areas of **1.** thinking, **2.** knowledge, and **3.** attitudes, feelings, and values. Grade level instructional objectives are linked by the periodic reintroduction of key concepts, and main and organizing ideas. Specific facts are subordinate to the key concepts and main and organizing ideas used to structure the spiral from grades one through eight, and depth rather than breadth study characterizes the program. The authors note that by encountering a main and organizing idea at different grade levels, key concepts such as interdependence become "more abstract, more complex and more powerful". Facilitating development of increasing conceptual complexity for the growing child is the use of comparison and contrast in content section. As an example, the interdependence of humans and the physical/social environment is studied by examining diverse cases around the world, ranging across both historical and contemporary time dimensions. In doing so, flexibility of curricular organization is enhanced and reintroduction of the concept at increasing levels of complexity is facilitated.

CRITERIA FOR ISSUES-SENTERED CONTENT SELECTION

Selecting issues content

The traditional way educators select social studies content for instruction in today's classroom is dysfunctional. Traditional curriculum building is based on the disciplines of knowledge-history and the various social sciences. The content of these disciplines is, for the most part, devoid of issues or problems that are of utmost importance to individual students and their communities.

John Dewey reasoned that an act of thought begins when an individual experiences a felt need. He or she then moves on to explore alternative solutions to difficulty, projecting and testing implications and logical consequences. During the process of thinking, the individual draws upon relevant resources, including previous experiences as well as information contained in the traditional social sciences, an *emergent* character. From the standpoint of the learner, it comes into existence as it is needed.

When educators prepare to select social issues content, they will discover a significant distinction between content in the traditional discipline-based mode and emergent content.

How much of this content is pertinent to solving the problems that occur in students' daily lives? The relevance of the textbook's content to students' felt difficulties apparently varies, depending on the subject.

The emergent content mode focuses on societal and personal problems. Because content is not static, it emerges from social context where individuals interact with each other. Content comes not only from the experience of students and teachers interacting through classroom discussion.

Proposed criteria for Content Selection

There are five key criteria for content selection: relevance, reflection, action, practicality, and depth of understanding.

1. THE CRITERION OF RELEVANCE

Education responsible for content selection must ask these key questions to determine relevance: How does the curriculum relate to the students and the social context in which they find themselves? In other words, is the content of daily classroom lessons, textbooks, videos, teacher presentations, student assignments and reports, or computer generated programs related to the concerns of students as they go about making decisions in their lives, in and out of school?

Curriculum relevance could be achieved if such a criterion is applied. Traditional subject content would be used in class simply to provide the data and the arguments that relate to the issue at hand. In the issue-centered environment proposed here, prior experience of students would be part of the core material explored systematically.

2. THE CRITERION OF REFLECTION

Key questions to determine reflection: Does the content trigger thinking? Does the content engage the students in taking positions that can be explicitly grounded? Does the content (including the experiences of students) provide opportunities for all sides of the issues to be presented and critically analyzed? Are the materials that support different positions on the issue reliable?

Content and methods of learning and instruction are inseparable components of the process of reflective thinking.

3. THE CRITERION OF ACTION

Key question to determine action: Will the inclusion of the curriculum item or springboard be likely to result in some plan of action? In other words, will the critical and systematic analyses of the curriculum items at hand produce action?

The content may lead to critical thinking, it is also necessary, if social conditions are to be changed in a desirable way, to lead to some action. Social action that takes place as a result of reasoned deliberation is consistent with the principles of democracy that emphasize citizen participation and involvement in all matters of individual and public concern. Given the conflicts and cultural inconsistencies of our times, the social-issued curriculum can no longer be viewed as a source for purely academic debate without consideration for student and teacher involvement in the process of social change.

4. THE CRITERION OF PRACTICALITY

Key questions to determine practicality: Is the emerging curriculum or program of studies usable? If administrators, teachers and parents are not ready for a drastic change, should there be some paradigms that provide students with the opportunity to focus on social issues within the conflicts of the traditional curriculum, subject by subject? Are appropriate resources-human and material-available to support the effort?

5. DEPTH OF UNDERSTANDING

Key questions to determine depth of understanding: Does the curriculum promote or hinder reflection or persistent problems of humankind? Do the curriculum, and the teachers applying it, allow the classroom participants to connect the issue or problem at hand with relevant sources?

The relevance of the topic to the lives of students makes it almost obligatory for its systematic treatment in the social studies classroom. At this point, in addition to current reports extracted from newspapers, magazines, radio and television broadcasts, and reports of personal experiences and observations

PREPARING CITIZENS TO PARTICIPATE IN DEMOCRATIC DISCOURSE: The Public Issues Model

Introduction

"At the heart of strong democracy is talk."

Benjamin Barber (1984)

This model, developed by the Harvard Social Studies project rests on the idea that citizens in a democracy differ in their views and priorities and those democratic values often conflict when applied in specific cases. The resolution of complex public issues within democratic society requires citizens to negotiate their differences through careful analysis and public discussion. Helping students develop their abilities to take part in this conversation is thus a critical, if not the foundational, aspect of social studies education.

The public issues model posits that citizens must possess several characteristics. First, the citizen must be familiar with the values of civic culture as embodied in the Constitution, Bill of Rights, and Declaration of Independence. Second, the citizen must have skills for clarifying and resolving various kinds of (e.g., political, social, and economic) issues. These skills include being able to gather and weigh evidence, to analyze the legal and ethical issues involved, to evaluate arguments on various sides of a case, and then to synthesize facts, issues, and arguments in making the best possible decision. Third, the citizen must be a passionate, committed participant who is motivated to use her skills and knowledge in concert with other citizens to arrive at new understandings and the best possible decisions.

The Legal/Ethical Values Framework

The public issues model first focuses students' attention on case studies dealing with limited factual situations rather than on sweeping sets of events. While the situations are limited in scope, they are powerful because they may be linked conceptually to enduring dilemmas faced by people living at widely varying times and in diverse places.

How should particular events, episodes, or issues be selected for inclusion in the curriculum? There is no single answer appropriate for all classes. Two major criteria, however, should be kept in mind:

1. the overall importance of the issues to the society and body politic in which we all live and
2. the possible personal significance the stories and issues might have for ourselves and the particular students we are teaching.

The availability of materials on a topic may also be a factor influencing the choice of specific cases. Among the sources that can be used are stories and vignettes, research data, primary sources, journalistic narratives, textbook accounts, and interpretive essays. In addition, students' experiences and concerns may provide possible case material.

Because of the complexity of the discussion process, the initial cases probably should be relatively simple. We would also argue that "less is more" in that any single case should be treated in depth over a fairly lengthy period of time. Relatively short, one-time debates about complex public issues should be avoided.

Clarifying and Resolving Public Issues through Discussion

The ability to discuss issues rationally and civilly does not develop without experience and reflection. The public issues model provides a vehicle for helping students develop not only the ability to ask the right questions and seek relevant information, but to pursue their questions in a way that advances democratic values.

Any given situation or case can stimulate controversy and disagreement in a number of directions.

FACT-EXPLANATION ISSUES. Factual issues are disagreements about the descriptions or explanations of events. There are many kinds of factual claims, some involving little generalization and some involving a great deal.

In discussion, factual claims may be supported in a number of ways:

- **Appealing to "common knowledge" or "common sense."** "Common knowledge" or "common sense" is a relatively weak source of evidence, since it suggests no additional process by which to resolve the disagreement.
- **Citing personal observations.** Personal observation is of somewhat limited use in the study of public issues, since few of us have the opportunity to actually witness the events. For this reason, we rely heavily on the reports of others, in hopes that they can provide reliable information.
- **Reference to an authoritative source.** When referring to an authoritative source, however, we also must inquire into the quality of the authority. Is the authority really an expert? Is there information about the authority indicating that he/she has a personal bias on the topic? Do different authorities make contradictory claims, or do authorities support each other? If there are differences, where do they lie? At times, factual claims can be tested by gathering more evidence. At other times, finding the information needed may be difficult if not impossible. If students cannot take time out to gather more evidence or if the evidence needed simply does

not exist (as is the case in many policy contexts), they can use one of the following strategies to continue discussion:

1. the group may agree to stipulate that the discussion will proceed on the basis of one set of facts or factual claims, or
2. the members of the group may agree to bypass or temporarily ignore the issue, using other arguments to make their cases.

DEFINITIONAL ISSUES. Definitional issues revolve around how people use words or phrases in discussion. For example, two people might disagree on whether a group was oppressed. One person might say *oppressed* means having no political freedoms, while the other person holds that *oppressed* means being in a degrading situation due to someone else's actions (e.g., without a job because of governmental policies).

Discussion along by helping reach agreement on definitional issues that are primarily labeling problems:

- **Stipulation.** People can agree to use a word consistently in a specific way. ("Whenever we use the term *responsible*, we mean consciously causing an event to occur.")
- **Use of an authoritative source.** Discussants can use a dictionary or other authoritative source to find support for the particular use of a word or phrase.

ETHICAL OR VALUE ISSUES. Ethical or value statements suggest that some object, person, or conduct is good or bad and that this quality is based on an important general principle, such as peace and stability, security from physical harm, or equal treatment before the law. Value conflicts are at the core of most controversies regarding public policy decisions. For example, consider the following:

Controversial Policy Question: VALUE CONFLICTS
<p>? Should rap or heavy metal music be censored? Freedom of speech versus morals of the majority</p> <p>? Should the federal government fund universal health care? Individual well-being and human dignity versus business autonomy and individual choice.</p>

A public policy concerning any of these issues cannot be decided upon without violating a value held by some people. The challenge in discussing these issues is finding the policy alternatives that least violate important democratic values.

Discussants who recognize value statements can use several strategies to challenge or support such statements:

- **Use of a respected or venerable source.**

Value statements may be justified by showing that they are supported by a source that most people consider sacred, respected, or venerable. For example, the statement "*Rap music should not be censored*" might be supported by reference to the First Amendment or the words of Thomas Jefferson.

- **Prediction of a valued consequence.** Policy positions and value judgments are often used together to show that support of a particular policy will lead to a desirable end or will avoid undesirable consequences.

- **Analogy.** One of the most powerful techniques for clarifying our thinking on ethical-value issues is to suggest that an issue might be resolved differently in one or more related cases.

The Discussion/Conversation Process

In the classroom, the point of discussing public issues is to use the power of both critical and caring relationships to educate individuals and the group. In applying the public issues model, the teacher becomes a facilitator, helping students to make productive conversations with each other. To prepare students for such discussions, teachers must focus considerable attention on creating a climate supportive of authentic discourse and developing students' discussion skills.

CLASSROOM CULTURE AND DISCUSSION. A major challenge in discussing controversial issues is to achieve sufficient unity and harmony within the group so that conversation leads to productive problem solving. People with opposing views do not have to adopt a combative or avoidance posture in conversations. Instead, the discussion process helps them press toward mutual clarification and exploration, to see discussion as a process of inquiry, and to value the whole group for its unique ability to provide a setting in which this can happen.

Significant conversation about public issues is in some ways like a team sport. When we are caught up in a soccer or basketball game, the essence of the situation is not a separate ego doing something but rather a set of relationships among the various players. Each requires the use of personal disciplined techniques but also the letting go that happens when a team is playing well together. An exciting conversation cannot be constructed by an individual; it requires the wholehearted involvement of a group. In addition, the teacher is encouraged to model certain attitudes toward the discussion of public issues— careful listening, respect, and the willingness to change one's mind.

DISCUSSION SKILLS. To take part in productive discussions of public issues, students need a variety of skills, many of which require breaking unproductive habits they employ in casual conversation; that is, they must learn techniques of disciplined discussion. Among these techniques are:

1. sensitivity to what others are saying,
2. stating the issue over which discussants disagree,
3. setting an agenda and pursuing it with some degree of continuity,
4. making explicit the changes or transitions in the conversation,
5. dealing with potential roadblocks, and 6. reflecting on the discussion process.

1 Sensitivity. Conversations often seem to go U around in circles because the participants don't seem to be talking about the same issue, even though they are on the same general topic or problem. They do not respond to one another's statements. Some tips that can be helpful to students include the following:

- Put yourself in the other person's place to understand what that person is saying and how he or she feels.
- Show understanding and acceptance through such nonverbal behaviors as gestures, eye contact, posture, and facial expression.

- When a person has finished speaking, try restating the person's most important thought or feeling.
- If there seems to be confusion about the issue under discussion, clarify by summarizing the statements of several of the people who have spoken.

2. Stating the Issue. Discussion often begins by concentrating on one aspect of a situation. In a complicated situation, many different opinions are soon thrown into the discussion. One of the first challenges of disciplined discussion is to sort out how many different things are being said about different issues or topics. Another immediate need is to identify points of agreement and disagreement. These steps allow the participants to focus on a limited number of issues and pursue them systematically.

3. Setting an Agenda. An agenda is a list of issues that a group agrees to consider in the course of a discussion. When a group begins discussing a complicated situation, different people see different issues. Each usually talks about the issue he or she thinks is most important and is insensitive to the issues that others see. One way of dealing with this problem is to list all the issues that seem important. The discussants then decide which issues they wish to discuss and in what order.

Having made this decision, members of the group can remind one another of what points are relevant and what points are not. If someone jumps to the third issue when the group is still entangled in the first, he or she can be reminded that this contribution is not relevant at this point.

Pursuing issues with continuity is important. Changing issues too quickly tends to disrupt attempts to clarify or resolve basic disagreements. The systematic pursuit of an issue means sticking with it long enough to deal with its problems thoroughly.

4. Making Clear Transitions. There are points in discussion where it is useful to leave one issue and move on to another. An argument between two discussants may become so deadlocked that no agreement is likely. They may then agree to disagree and to take up another issue related to the general topic. Another member of a group may see that there is a prior issue that must be settled before the issue under discussion can productively be explored.

When someone chooses to change the issue under consideration, he or she should make this known with an explicit transitional statement, explaining why a change of issue at that point would move the discussion forward. When making a transition, it may be helpful to summarize the differences between the two discussants before moving on to the next issue.

5. Potential Roadblocks. For discussion to be productive, students also need to recognize roadblocks and develop strategies for dealing with them. Such roadblocks may include failure to listen and pursue issues systematically, monopolizing the conversation, proof by repetition, personal attack, and worry about winning the argument. Two potentially difficult roadblocks result when participants have little or no interest in the controversial situation and therefore feel unmotivated to participate in the conversation or, conversely, have such deep interests and convictions that it is difficult for them to be reasonable about the topic. These two problems speak to the necessity to select issues carefully.

6. Reflecting on the Discussion. Involving students in reflecting on the quality of the discussion may be one of the most direct paths to productive discussion. During a discussion, a group can pause and ask "What's happening now?" The general questions below can be used to determine if the discussion is moving along productively or "going in circles":

- What issues have been discussed?
- What positions were taken, and by whom?

- Was agreement reached on any issue? Which ones?
- What things helped move the discussion along?
- What things bogged the discussion down or made it unproductive?
- What things should be discussed next? Why?

While the answers to these kinds of questions will help students reflect on and improve their discussion skills, they are not the ultimate determinant of whether a discussion has been productive. In order to better measure the quality of discussion, we would advocate the following benchmark: When positions are more complex (in the sense of including distinctions, qualifications, stipulations, etc.) than when the discussion began, then the discussion has been productive.

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Introduction to Issues-Centered History

This chapter addresses teachers in search of innovative ways to advance their students' comprehension of contemporary issues through the investigative study of history. It is assumed that expertise in history is not judged how many facts, dates, and events one can recall, but whether one can demonstrate skill in classifying, probing, and formulating solutions.

In this chapter, a strategy for teaching issues-centered history is introduced and illustrated by examples of its application in world and Armenian history courses. This is followed by a discussion of recommended activities and resources. The chapter then closes with suggestions for shifting from traditional to issues-centered history.

In the sense of acquiring knowledge and skills, history serves as the umbrella course in which elements of geography, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, and philosophy can be studied. From the perspective of promoting citizenship education, history includes blending aspects from social studies subject areas for the purpose of activating a student's full participation in civic affairs. Issue-centered education can become an effective tool in advancing acquisition of discipline-centered knowledge and skills.

Three general patterns have emerged for exploring issues in history. They are useful singularly or in any combination:

- Issues are raised with students: Teachers tell the students that something is an issue.
- Issues emerge from lectures, presentations, readings, discussions, projects, or activities: Students identify an issue.
- Issues are used to relate past to present or present to past. An issue is raised by either teachers or students.

One thing to keep in mind about issues-centered education is that topics are not issues. The issues part of the topic occurs when a question is raised, some doubt is suggested, or something contradictory is noticed.

In learning history simply reading or hearing about selected topics is not enough. Teachers must do what they can to help students understand what it is they are reading or hearing about. Our interest is not merely to do thing in a clinical sense-to help students to become better reciters of facts or readers or spellers or even writers-but to help students become more thoughtful and reflective about the lesson at hand. To succeed in this goal, providing students with experiences is only half the task. If a student can create in his or her own mind the relationship of this lesson to other lessons-that is to build bridges to other ideas-we may conclude, that learning has occurred. It may also be said that we have succeeded I our teaching if our students can come to the point of not only explaining the lesson (and not repeating or parroting the readings or lecture) but of truly demonstrating their learning to us and themselves by identifying the issues embodied in the lesson.

We might identify four treatments of issues in the classroom.

- The teacher presents an issue: doing or having an experience.
- Students recognize the issue imbedded in a lesson: signaling a transition to undergoing.
- Students successfully explain the issue: undergoing or demonstrating learning.
- Students test their new learning against or similar conditions: confirming or challenging the new learning.

In using issues-study as a model teachers are not bound to approach issues in a linear fashion. In presenting a lesson, teachers do not need to begin with an issue. Students may identify issues in any time. However, teachers need to become aware of a student's recognition of an issue.

In schools the movement of issue-centered history into the curricula will require a certain integrity for both teachers and students. At this point, we arrive at the crucial test of issue-centered teaching. Is the teacher willing to set aside preconceived views for the sake of hearing out and sifting through differing perspectives and conflicting data? The issue of being eager to air other views and standing ready to modify your position in light of compelling evidence is central to issues-centered teaching. Issues-centered teaching is about getting as close as humanly possible to unvarnished truth, or at list, to being able to recognize the inconsistency or incongruent nature of the position. In addition, issues0centered teaching helps students to recognize the difference between bias and objectivity.

To proceed with any presentation of issues, we must come to grips with the reality that issues by nature, involve values and emotions, As such, values and emotions must often be suspended in order to make sense of the small pieces of the past that are recoverable. More directly, to teach issues-centered history , teachers must often suspend not only values and emotions, but also political views, personal convictions, and religious beliefs for the sake of seeking truth.

A Strategy for Teaching Issues-centered History

The strategy suggested here for teaching issues-centered history is based on a model of analogical reasoning, involving students in the comparison of the past and present events. It fuses a general problem-solving paradigm-defining and clarifying a problem, exploring possible strategies, implementing possible strategies, and evaluating the outcomes –with the

models of inquiry distinctive to the study of history-documentary analysis, logical inquiry, and literary critique. The resultant strategy calls for student to select and define a social issue of contemporary significance, use primary and secondary sources to investigate these occurrences, list their findings in the form of generalization, compare and contrast the historical findings with the issue in the contemporary setting, propose historically tenable solutions, and take action to resolve the problem.

Selecting and Defining the Issues

Cultivating student interest is a critical first step. Research demonstrates that success in analogical thinking is optimized when students are motivated to inquire into the problem at hand. If intrinsic interest is not apparent, the teacher will have to devise an activity or approach to approach to elicit motivation.

Once interest has been cultivated, students are assigned to teams of three or four to draft a one page statement of the issue in response to the following questions:

What is the controversy in the question?

Who are the contending parties in the controversy?

What are the specific points of contention?

What social values are in conflict?

What makes this dispute a matter of public importance?

What are the key problems that require solutions?

After completion of the teams' statements, the teacher conducts a discussion for the purpose of synthesizing them into a class defined statement of the issue.

Identifying Relevant Historical Occurrences

Working again in their teams, students consult their textbook and other references to generate a list of ten or more analogous historical circumstances.

The events chosen need not precisely mirror the circumstances of the modern issue, but students should be cautioned that the more widely disparate the historical circumstances, the greater the risk that they will formulate false analogies. The teams' lists are then pooled and narrowed to a short list of perhaps five or seven events, depending on the size of the class. The students are then instructed to do in-depth studies of the events. An optional approach would be for each team to select its own short list and assign one event to each team member for investigation.

Defining the Research Procedure. Locating and Analyzing Sources

Let us assume that each team is responsible for researching a single event. Teams are informed that their goal will be twofold: First, to arrive at a list five to ten findings for their historical circumstance; second, to produce a list of five to ten statements comparing various aspects of the issue then and now. Teams are instructed that whenever feasible, they are to write their findings in the form of social-science-type generalization

The teacher should provide examples.

Four cautionary rules need to be introduced and posted to guide them investigations.

1. The issue explored in historical context are to be viewed in the light of the standards, values and attitudes of their time rather than those of the present.

2. Issues and events are the product of multiple causations, not simple, one-to-one, cause-and-effect relationships.
3. The record of past issues is necessarily fragmented, selective, and biased.
4. History is more likely to suggest possible rather than probable solutions to contemporary issues.

Each team is instructed to draw a time line for the investigation, including a list of the tasks assigned to each team member.

Students next be instructed to complete a teacher-provided form for each source of information they decide to use. The form calls for a summary of the information about its significance, accuracy, values and beliefs, unstated assumptions, reasoning, and evidenced-based conclusions. Teams should meet regularly with the teacher to discuss their progress and receive advice on additional sources and avenues of investigation.

Formulating Findings and Conclusions

This phase of the exercise involves three steps. First, with the four cautionary rules in mind, each team produces a list of findings for their historical circumstance. Second, using the original statement of the issue formulated by the class, the team generates a list of statements comparing and contrasting their historical findings with the issue in the contemporary setting. These statements should be carefully monitored their evidentiary basis, logical consistency, and soundness of analogical thought (Fisher 1970). Third, the teams present their findings and comparative statement to the class. The class then examines the accumulated evidence to decide whether any “lessons from history” can be applied to the issue in the contemporary setting.

Proposing Solutions and Taking Action

In this last step, students make projections about future developments and theorize about possible solution. When feasible, they take action on their proposed solutions.

The Role of the Teacher

Ideally, the teacher’s role is primarily that of facilitator-posing issues for consideration, prompting team investigations, suggesting and providing sources of information, interposing questions, and encouraging and challenging students to support their findings with logic and evidence.

The wisdom of practice research suggests that effective history teaching may occur in both highly structured and relatively unstructured classrooms (Wineburg and Wilson, 1988).

The strategy here is meant to be adaptable. Using a more structured approach, the teacher might open the lesson with the motivational exercise, model the application of the four cautionary rules through a comparison of the contemporary issue with one or two historical examples, engage the students in a guided exercise in which students practice applying the four-rule template to one or two historical circumstances and conclude the lesson with the discussion of the implications. The entire practice lesson could be conducted within a single class period. The issue under discussion would be revisited as it became germane at subsequent points in the course.

It is important to recognize that there are no limitations to the structured approach. First, research suggests that students’ interest, efficacy and understanding of controversial issues are decreased when the classroom environment closed and overly directive.. second, engaging

students in the process of analogical thinking necessarily entails higher-order thinking in which the instructional procedures cannot be specified to the same degree as in “lower order” learning tasks.

To help students bridge the gap between their current abilities and the goal of getting them to think independently, the teacher might assume the structured modeling posture at the beginning of the course and gradually move toward a more facilitative approach as the course progress.

As an issue-centered teacher you must look for problems, inconsistencies, and contradictions in your own interpretation and values, as well as those interpretations and values found in others.

The purpose of the teacher’s work is not so much to impart answers that students should know, but to assist the students in taking responsibility for their own deliberations, decision making, and actions.

Selecting Issues

While virtually any issue of contemporary significance may be profitably examined from a historical perspective, a two pronged test may help to ascertain its suitability:

1. What central concepts in history are embodied in the issue?
2. Is the issue the extension of some historically persistent debate over fundamental values?

Examples of issues that meet the two-pronged test are those identified by the historian Paul Kennedy (1993): population growth, man’s use of the environment, human rights, food production, conflict among nations, the role of the nation-state, industrial growth, economic development, and science and technology. Another key to selecting issue is that virtually any debate involving a question of elemental political, social, economic, or technological change is likely to be appropriate. These tests are bi-directional-that is, if any issue were to emerge within the context of the particular historical event, the concepts, values, and change tests would help determine whether the issue has contemporary relevance.

All of this may suggest that issues are to be viewed primarily from a global or national frame of reference. This is not necessarily the case. To accentuate interest and relevance, issues may also be approached from a local perspective.

Once students have examined the historical and contemporary aspects of the problem in its community setting, discussion can be extended to the issue in its larger national or international context.

Examining issues one at a time provides focus and facilitates manageability, but it also limits the students’ opportunity to see the complex interrelationships among issues.

Teaching Methods and Resources

Any of the plethora of methods on teaching history as a problem-solving endeavor-that is, those that engage students in thinking and behaving in the manner of historians-are readily adaptable to issue-centered history. Several methods are particularly useful for issues-centered teaching. such as documentary analysis, biographies and case studies, argumentation-based activities, simulations, and team investigation methods.----

Argumentative methods-Any method involving students in a debate over two or more sides of an issue is tailor-made for issue-centered history. These include mock trials, debates, mock legislative and organizational meetings, and historical reenactments of events.

Team Investigation Methods

The issues strategy introduced in this chapter recommends the use of student investigation teams. Three cooperative learning techniques useful for this purpose: group investigation, jigsaw, and structured Academic controversy.

Group investigation-Thelen's group investigation model as refined by Sharan and Hertz-Lazarowitz (1980) is the teaming model used as the basis for the issues strategy in this chapter. Students are grouped into teams and begin by identifying an issue of common interest. The team plans its historical investigation and assigns specific responsibilities to each member. The group meets to synthesize its findings and produce a report stating its conclusions and recommendations for action. Although the method may be adapted to provide more structure for the students. The main advantage of this technique lies in its open –end-endness and freedom of inquiry.

Jigsaw- WE WILL ADD ARMENIAN VERSION

Structured Academic Controversy (SAC). This highly structured approach developed by Johnson and Johnson (Johnson and Johnson, 1979, 1985, 1988) is grounded in the recognition that controversy addressed through cooperative learning groups can have positive learning outcomes. The steps in the SAC take students from learning information to reasoned judgment. At least four class periods are needed to complete the process.

Teacher preparation involves the following steps:

- Choosing a topic for which materials representing two well documented position are available,
- Creating materials for students outlining the task, process, and controversy to be addressed.
- Structuring the controversy to insure cooperative group work for completion of the task:

Day 1: In groups of four, pairs study one side of the controversy. Partners learn the position assigned and prepare to advocate their position.

Day 2: Teams take turns persuasively presenting positions to other students representing the other side of the controversy.

Students on the other side are expected to make notes and ask questions about information that they don't understand.

Day 3: Teams reverse positions. Each side uses the notes and materials from the other side to make a shorter presentation demonstrating their understanding of the opposite side.

Day 4: Teams then put aside their positions and discuss the issue, trying to find points of argument among the group members. Teams attempt to reach some consensus, if only on steps they must take resolve their differences. This step can be followed with a writing assignment in which students formalize their personal thinking.

- Debriefing the activity by talking about how the group worked as a team and how use of the process contributed to a deeper understanding of the issue.

A critical approach to teaching history

We believe that the central purpose of social studies instruction in school is to inspire critical reflection on society, and by so doing to contribute to the improvement and eventual transformation of society toward a vision of a more just society, that is “worthy, lovely and harmonious” (Dewey, 1899). Our central aim should be to inspire the critical reflection on our past, present and future. This aim might best be accomplished by emphasizing critical perspectives, by exploring crucial issues, and by including alternative views and knowledge. This is a biased perspective. The stories of common people in their struggle to improve their lot should receive more time and in-depth attention than the stories of the elite, businessmen and politicians, who have held dominant positions in the power structure of their countries. This does not mean that the “heroes” still getting most of the space in our history books would be left out. It means that our emphasis would shift to asking critical questions, analyzing assumptions, and devoting to studying the ways of improvement, the ways that oppressed challenged the society in which they were living and generated social progress.

While the casual reader might assume that the aim of critical approach would be just the opposite, to inspire negative feelings about society, that would be an unfair characterization, and a misunderstanding of this approach. Instead we should develop in our students an appreciation of the complexity of our society and the world, and an understanding of the critical issues that have, and continue to determine the shape of our lives.

Ways to Implementing a Critical Approach

This approach raises several important questions regarding pedagogy, teacher and student roles, curricular content and course organization. Ronald W. Evans suggests several ways of implementing a critical, issues-centered approach in the teaching of history, each of which may be appropriate for different teachers depending on their readiness, philosophical orientation, skill and experience as discussion leader, and student reading and inquiry skills.

First, infusing issues and critical perspectives may be most appropriate for the majority of teachers. Certainly, this approach is most easily accomplished without changing the basic format and structure of most chronologically sequenced textbooks and courses. The issues, knowledge, and perspectives would enhance any social studies course and will no doubt be useful for all teachers and students to consider.

A second approach would be to retain a broad chronological structure, studying particular topics in depth within the stream of chronology but develop critical issues perspectives as themes to be developed by teacher and students within each unit and topic studied. This approach implies a more consistent application of a critical understanding and a more thorough revision of course goals and format. Thematic issues could be introduced in the form of persistent questions at the start of the course, developed in each unit of the study, and returned to at the end of the year for culminating discussions of the implications of the historical data studied. For many teachers, given current student and parent expectations and the format of most textbooks, this may seem a reasonable and thoughtful alternative because it can be readily applied within a traditional chronological course structure.

A third approach would be to develop topical units in which major critical issues are studied in depth, breaking the broad chronological organizational scheme. An obvious advantage of this organizing scheme is that it emphasizes the in-depth, interdisciplinary study of persistent issues, yet allows development of chronological strands by topic.

A critical approach to teaching history would seek to stimulate a critical dialog with emphasis on student to student communication and student led inquiry. While the teacher would openly discuss her or his biases and frame of reference, teachers would carefully consider the timing and potential impact of their views on student beliefs. As a general rule, the teacher's perspective will be shared as one of the many, to be opened to critical examination and discussion (Evans, 1993).

The study of problems and issues must be in disciplinary and extra disciplinary, for the course to realize its full potential. Teacher and students would seek full inclusion of social realities of present and past. No issues, questions or content would be deemed too controversial. In fact, controversy would be prized partly for motivating emotional charge it can give to any inquiry. A critical approach would emphasize for a meaningful reason for studying historical sources, events and trends for the wisdom we may gain in thinking about our society and our world.

Finally, a critical approach will mean reflection on students' lives, discussion of the significance of the topic studied for the lives of students and for the society. The literature on critical theory in education instructs social studies educators to lead students to look to history, to examine the effects and exercise of power, and to search for distorted beliefs and communications in trying to understand the world. Texts cannot be perceived as authoritative and fundamental, but must instead be interrogated and critiqued by student and teacher, with student's lives viewed as a text or source to analyze.

ISSUES-CENTERED APPROACH TO TEACHING GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL SOURCES

Issues-centered social studies education is consistent with democratic values and ideals. It provides open discourse and careful examination of the issues under discussion, thereby providing new views on problems, encouraging divergent thinking, and valuing different perspectives (Pang & Park 1992:108). Hence, issues-centered approaches to problem-solving encourage students to have open-minded views in seeking solutions to human problems. It could be said that issues-centered education has a crosscultural base to it. As the values of society change from one generation to another, the issues-centered approach allows students to question the actions and practices of previous generations. An issues-centered curriculum does not have a preset solution to problems. Rather, it allows students to develop analytical skills in articulating the issues and raising pertinent questions in problem-posting and problem-solving. In a multicultural and pluralistic society, it is very important to provide the young with the skills and attitudes necessary for communicating with each another. Issues-centered approaches to social studies programs should include experiences that provide for the study of people, places, and environments.

This section of the handbook deals with issues-centered approaches to teaching geography, the environment.. The common theme that ties together the two subject areas is the global linkage that transcends all national boundaries.

In their article "Issues-Centered Approaches to Teaching Geography Courses," David Hill and Salvatore J. Natoli offer insightful suggestions for how the classroom teachers should handle geography. They suggest that teachers should view and analyze an issue according to its spatial context; that events and issues occur at different places on the earth's surface, and that physical

and cultural characteristic of these spaces or places add significant dimensions to the issues and events. In examining the spatial characteristics of water pollution, the geographers begins the analysis by studying the pollution's locational characteristics and their implications. The geographer then formulates a series of questions about the spread of the pollutants from point of diffuse sources, their distribution over space and time, and the relative severity of their effects on various areas.

Issues to geographers are problems that have both direct and indirect relationships to places and that affect people and other places.

Geographic skills help people make rational political decision on issues pertaining of problems of air, water and land pollutions. Local problems affecting residential areas and places where industries and schools are located also required skillful use of geographic information.

Like geography, the **environmental** problems created by human being extend beyond national boundaries and cut across disciplines. In order to deal with environmental problems more effectively, we need to consider two different questions that always concern environmental policy: "what will be the societal result of this policy?" and "Why some policies acted on and others are are not?" In working with students, it is necessary to understand the problem of the environment as it relates to and effects policy. Have students come up with their own ways of approaching the proposed policy using newspapers and publications.

The many issues affecting the planet likewise have a tremendous impact on people's daily lives. Many of these issues and events are caused by humans, and others are caused by natural phenomena. In dealing with some of these issues, we suggest raising important questions with students on how to solve environmental problems such as pollution, global conflicts, conservation, waste management, deforestation, hazards, infant and child mortality, drought and famine, poverty, race relations, and human rights.

Student must learn to respect other people and other lands as well as environmental unity and natural diversity.

Using an issues-centered approach to teaching environmental problems provides for active discussion about environmentalism and conservation. Students can discuss environmentalism as it pertains to the growth of natural rights, the expansion of ethics, the uses and misuses of scientific knowledge, the economic basis of social policies, and the practice of social issue analysis.

Social issues become policy issues whenever people's beliefs clash over what should be done by those who have the authority to do something. Policy issues can be successfully clarified by asking *who* is attempting to influence public policy-making, what is environmental *condition* targeted by the policy, and what is the *purposed* or *contented* policy. It is important to be specific when describing each of these components. For example, vague terms such as "big corporation" or "environmentalists" are not very useful for enhancing our understanding of the value conflicts involved in an environmental issue. Instead, we need to know *who* in the industry is speaking. *What* is their personal interest in the outcome? *What* will they personally lose or gain? *Whose views* do their statements reflect: Their own? Official company policy? *How organized* are the people who hold an environmental viewpoint? What *access* do they have to sources of information that are used in making a policy? *To what extent* are the sides aligned according to social class, gender, or race? Responses to these types of questions help when analyzing the implicit value conflicts. These conflict are more revealing of the parameters of the policy problem than so-called hard data that is involved.

Environmental policy issues are even more interesting when we realize that all information, regardless of how “scientific”, is value-laden. Scientific information has traditionally been credible with policy-makers because it appears objective and technical. The scientific community, however, increasingly recognizes that the creation and presentation of scientific findings are influenced by human values. The task for educators when analyzing environmental policies-especially social studies educators-is to evaluate the relative merits of technical knowledge within the context of human concerns.

The issues identified should challenge and concern citizens of today and tomorrow as well as affect the lives of people in many parts of the world.

We are not insulated from the vagaries of global changes. We should therefore train our students not to view the issues and problems of the world in isolation, but to see instead that what is done in one part of the world affects everyone’s environment and economy. World issues become our issues.

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AN APPROACH TO ISSUES-ORIENTED ECONOMIC EDUCATION

This chapter aims to define the nature of economic problems, discuss tools of economic analysis and present criteria for evaluating solutions to economic issues. Because some of the ideological perspectives incorporate social, historical and political dimensions or issues, classroom instruction must be approached in an interdisciplinary manner. Also, since economic issues are often complex, they should be explored in an informed and thoughtful manner. Economics is a discipline that deals with the problem of scarcity. Scarcity occurs when human wants are greater than the resources available to produce goods and services to satisfy those wants. The existence of scarcity forces upon all people the requirement of making choices. A primary objective of teaching of economics is to prepare students to make rational choices as individuals and as a member of society based on objective analyses and the values of choice makers.

What are the criteria for evaluating economic choices?

Economists generally agree on the set of criteria that should be considered when deciding any economic issue. What they cannot do is determined by the individual or the group making the decision. The criteria include several factors:

1. **Economic growth.** How will decisions affect the rate of wealth creation? Will the economy pie grow faster or slower, regardless of how it will be sliced?
2. **Economic efficiency.** How is the system organized to make economic decisions? Are the resources used to their fullest to obtain the greatest output for the last inputs?
3. **Income distribution.** Will all parties share in the output of economic activity? Will the shares of outputs be changed by the decisions being made? Who wins and who loses, or do all win?
4. **Economic freedom.** Are individual rights protected? Are some group rights reduced so other group rights are enlarged? Are net freedoms expended, contracted, or do they remain the same? Are property rights changed? Is freedom of job choice preserved?
5. **Equity.** Is the system fair? Can all people benefit to the extent of their talents and contributions? Does discrimination reduce the "fairness"? Does the market have more or less equity than legislation?
6. **Stability.** Do our decisions make the economy less susceptible to wide fluctuations in income and employment? Can you reasonably anticipate the future?
7. **Economic development.** Does economic growth change our economic structure and economic opportunities? Is Development creating not only something different, but something better for people? Do we want more things or a higher quality of life?

Informed Construction

Pedagogy as well as content must be informed, balanced, constructed, grounded, and dynamic in order to assist learners as they become more thoughtful (Newman, 1992), analytic, caring, and creative economic decision makers. Some economic issues-such as those dealing with social stratification, unemployment, international trade, taxes, the role of government allocating and redistributing resources and income, the distribution of wealth, and so on- are so “hot”, emotional, and loaded with intensity, and often with dogmatic and pre-determined conclusions, that thoughtful classroom treatment is difficult. Both, the content of issues-centered economics instruction and the pedagogy employed are sources of conflict in the classroom. In addition, they are the keys to determining whether learning will be meaningful or aimless.

Issues-centered instruction demands a “culture of thinking” in the classroom: an attitude by teachers and students of curiosity and skepticism; of calmness and contemplation; or informed investigations and logical thinking; or objectivity along with creativity; of role playing and empathy; of persistence in the pursuit of data and alternative perspectives; of doubt and critical thinking, and of questioning. Teachers and students must adopt the attitude that other perspectives are valid and reasonable. In addition, all should remain open to their own views changing as they construct new ways of seeing and assessing issues.

Not only should pedagogy be informed by the latest, most relevant insights from theory and research, but issues-centered instruction should be informed by data rather than mere opinion. Students should learn where to find information, how to assess its reliability, authenticity, and validity, and how to interpret data presented in a range of forms.

While it is not the goal of this chapter to develop the research base for issues-centered instruction, we believe there is considerable theoretical and empirical work to guide educators in making wise pedagogical choices. Through the employment of such work, we now propose the following plan for making the transition to a more issues-centered approach to economic instruction.

Issue-Oriented Teaching Model

The model blends effective pedagogy with content knowledge to produce an approach that addresses the interpretive and interdisciplinary aspects of economic issues. The model begins with student interest and prior knowledge and leads them through a purposeful process of inquiry and investigation in which their visual representation and understanding of an issue is reconstructed as they uncover new information and new perspectives.

The Issue-Oriented Teaching Model:

Step 1: Representing and defining the issue and its parameters

(This aspect of the model is based on the students’ current knowledge and awareness of the issue).

- Identify the issue or the topic for investigation: reframe the issue as questions, represent the issue in alternative ways.
- Identify causes, constraints, sub-issues, and the historical and political factors that influence the central issue.
- Develop a graphic representation to portray the broad dimensions of the issue and to show the way the aspects of the issue relate to one another (causal, chronological, etc.)

Step 2: Linking prior knowledge with new information about the Issue

- Brainstorm with students to identify what they know or think they know about any questions/categories identified as relevant issue.
- Identify what data and sources will be needed in order to address the questions asked.
- Discuss what economic (and other) analytical concepts will be needed to fully understand the issue.
- Conduct data collection and analysis. In addition, at this point in instruction the teacher should design and implement mini-lessons on concepts students will need to understand in order to continue the analysis of the issue.

Step 3: Reconceptualizing /redefining the issue, given new data and ideas

- Ask what new dimension of the issue are apparent after examining the data and reading alternative opinions?
- Ask of the sub-issues can be redefined and addressed by applying the new factual and conceptual knowledge learned?

Step 4: Developing alternative points of view, with substantiating data

- Ask how different political parties would approach this issue. What criteria would each use to assess the problem? What policy recommendations would persons holding each perspective propose? What are the short-term and long-term consequences of each proposal? What other considerations should be addressed?

Step 5: Stating personal positions, giving supporting rational and data

- Have students address the questions, What position do I have on this issue, and why? What are the short-term and long-term consideration and consequences of my positions? What are the steps and impediment to policy implementation?

The guiding principles of issues-oriented economics instruction, then, are the same regardless of student age or sophistication level:

- Economics issues are complex and embedded in the social, political, and historical contexts of life. They should be viewed and studied in ways that reflect this richness.
- People have different opinions about how economics issues should be addressed, and these various viewpoints should be considered and evaluated by students as they contemplate their own position.
- Analysis of issues should be informed by reliable and valid data.
- Students learn best when they are interested in an issue and when they are intimately involved in the identification of the problem and in the construction of the dimensions and “solution”.
- Teachers must practice thoughtfulness, balance, objectivity, and issue analysis in their own lives in order to practice the proposed pedagogy in their classroom.

The role of the social studies classroom to assist students in informed reflection on important economic matters, to instill dispositions of thoughtfulness and inquiry, rather than impetuosity and dogmatism, and to foster awareness and apperceptions for the validity of alternative interpretations of complex issues. To achieve these goals teachers themselves must embody these traits and skills before they can adequately implement issues-oriented economics instruction in any classroom.

At present, most economics educators will find themselves developing their lessons, and will need to identify and gather the available data sources.

DISCUSSION METHODS IN AN ISSUES-CENTERED CURRICULUM

Classroom discussion is an essential element of an issues-centered curriculum. Wilen and White (1991) define discussion as "an educative and structured group conversation between teacher and students about subject matter at the higher cognitive levels." Discussion provides opportunities for students to reach several educational goals, including a depth of knowledge, rationality, commitment to fairness, development of critical thinking skills, a strengthening of oral expression and listening comprehension, development of insight into the values of oneself and others, and practice in the democratic process. Without discussion, an issues-centered curriculum is unlikely to progress past a cursory review of the topic and with shallow reflection.

Classroom discourse has long been present in schools, but not always in a manner that promotes the goals of an issues-centered curriculum. Teachers who choose to emphasize the study of issues must consider the following factors:

- Teacher impartiality
- Creating an atmosphere conducive to discussion
- Choice of topics
- Background knowledge
- The role of the teacher
- Teacher questioning
- Discussion management
- Discussion format
- Concluding the discussion

Creating an Atmosphere Conducive to Discussion

One aspect of impartiality is creating a classroom climate in which all student opinions receive respect. If students believe that their opinions will subject them to ridicule, emotional outbursts, or discrimination, they will refuse to participate. The primary rule for any group discussion is that only one person speaks at a time; basic etiquette insures that the speaker's opinions will be heard by everyone, thus avoiding the inefficiency of debaters repeating one another's points or criticizing arguments that were never expressed. It also precludes the possibility of students interrupting one another when a disagreeable statement is made. While calling on raised hands may limit the spontaneity of a conversation, it is the standard for any large meeting.

A second key rule is that discussion be moderated. When students engage in one-to-one debates without moderation, they quickly digress into shouting matches with little intellectual quality.

At certain points, however, allowing students to serve as moderators aids development of their own leadership skills and allows the teacher to take on other roles.

A third rule, which is more difficult to enforce is the prohibition of eye rolling, groans, and other disrespectful behavior. For many students, those gestures appear to be ingrained in

their personalities, but teachers must outlaw them anyway. The best strategy for achieving this may be a simple appeal to the students' sense of fair play, with a discussion of the negative consequences on individuals' self-esteem, classroom climate, and the quality of the discussion.

Choice of Topics

Successful discussions seldom arise spontaneously. They are more likely to be the result of teacher planning. Choosing the right topic for discussion is a primary responsibility for teachers in an issues-centered curriculum. Discussions must be based on an issue that students seek to explore. Without some sort of intellectual curiosity, the discussion will never evolve. Piaget's concept of disequilibrium may be helpful for teachers who wish to choose effective discussion starters.

Most topics in an issues-centered curriculum lend themselves to value discussions because they involve decisions. Any decision requires a consideration of conflicting values. Schools, for example, are constantly choosing between rules that promote efficiency but possibly violate freedom. Communities must sometimes choose between property rights and equality. Individuals must decide whether to sacrifice short-term benefits for long-term goals. Teachers can promote high-level discussions if they look for the value conflicts inherent in issues.

Background Knowledge

Before students can operate at a high level concerning a particular issue, they need background knowledge. Children cannot offer solutions for the problems without an overview of the history, geography, politics, and culture. If teachers are disappointed with the quality of student discourse, they would be wise to examine how prepared their students are to discuss topics at high levels. While much learning can take place during a discussion, sometimes direct instruction is necessary beforehand.

The Role of the Teacher

The greatest stress on the teacher in an issues-centered curriculum is promoting an honest and fair discussion of the issues. The literature on classroom discourse identifies several possible teacher roles, including moderator, mediator, proponent, and devil's advocate, some of which may be played simultaneously. Most teachers take on several roles during the same discussion.

Teachers must monitor themselves to determine the best role to play at certain times. When students are eagerly waving their hands to react to the comment, the teacher may be tempted to strictly serve as a moderator, passively insuring that each student is called upon in turn. In a best-case scenario, the teacher would have already prepared the students for the expected flood of opinions, by attempting to identify the range of viewpoints. These perspectives could then be reviewed at the conclusion of the debate. The key for the teacher is anticipating the course of the discussion by noticing cues.

Another temptation may be to raise the level of tension by egging on students. While adding liveliness to the discussion, this strategy could be harmful because it may promote an unhealthy environment for rational discussion. Teachers who are vigilant at monitoring the

situation will promote the goals of the lesson and avoid letting themselves or the students be drawn into a debate that challenges the opinion but also poisons the atmosphere.

Teacher Questioning

During a discussion, the teacher's strategy of questioning can be effective in promoting curricular goals. Two key determinants of an effective issues-centered discussion are ownership of the answer and leadership of the discussion. If the teacher has the answer and the leadership, the classroom discourse is more like a quiz show, with no real discussion taking place. If the teacher has neither the leadership nor the answer, the discourse is more of a free-for-all, with only a slight chance of achieving depth and focus. Ideally, the teacher should maintain discussion leadership with no one person owning the answer. That permits the teacher to guide students toward higher-level thinking.

During the course of discussion, questions should be geared toward higher-level thinking. An open-ended question—such as What should be done about?—avoids either/or choices and encourages creative problem solving. Affective questions, such as those addressing the values behind a decision or the feelings of individuals or groups—which can only be inferred and are, therefore, not owned by anyone—promote self-reflection and insight into the belief systems of others.

"Wait time" is essential in promoting the kind of thoughtful, meaningful discourse that characterizes a strong discussion. Increasing the length of pauses after a question is asked and before the teacher responds to the answer has been shown to significantly increase student achievement. In an issues-centered discussion, the need for thoughtfulness is paramount. Poorly thought-out comments distract students from the central issues and often provoke animosity. Thoughtfulness is also crucial in maximizing the degree of participation, as hesitant students have additional time to prepare their comments.

Discussion Management

Because questions are so efficient during recitation, teachers sometimes overuse them in discussion. A teacher who asks a question usually has the answer, so students tend to avoid the creative thought, critical thinking, or careful listening to classmates that discussion entails. A discussion may develop the more natural tone of a conversation if teachers use wait time or statements instead of questions in response to student comments.

Teachers not always respond to student answers and instead let other students react. Providing a response to every student comment tends to move the discussion back to the front of the room, placing considerable power in the hands of the teacher. This results in a type of inquisition, instead of a free-flowing exchange of ideas between students. The atmosphere for genuine conversation becomes perverted when teachers talk too much. Besides, the ultimate goal is student empowerment that will lead to personal and societal benefits. Those who can listen to one another without the constant intervention of a moderator may be best suited to the demands of both the interpersonal and political arenas.

This is not to argue that teachers should never interject comments. To skirt the line between a discussion and a free-for-all, teachers should look for opportunities to raise the level of discourse. At certain points, a probing question or the contrasting of student utterances can move the discussion in a positive direction. Probing questions, which encourage students to clarify or expand on their ideas, have been correlated with general student achievement. Such questions are particularly valuable in an issues-centered discussion. Unclear statements are

common in public discourse, especially among those with little experience at it, such as children. A probing question can avoid misunderstanding and promote communication.

One type of probing question that is often overlooked is the kind that asks for evidence to support a particular point. Teachers can help students strengthen their arguments by asking for supporting data. Of course, students can eventually learn to ask for such evidence themselves, thus removing the teacher from the role of arbiter. Either way, the result of this strategy should be higher-level arguments.

Teacher comments can serve other purposes besides higher-level thought. At times, a humorous comment may be needed to reduce tension. A lengthy or convoluted discussion may require periodic summaries. Certainly, if the teacher becomes aware of the need for additional background information, an interjection is essential. In general, however, less teacher talk and more student talk is the goal.

Discussion Format

Many teachers find it helpful to employ a variety of formats for structuring different portions of a discussion. In this section we will describe formats that we believe teachers will find helpful in conducting discussions in both small- and large-group settings.

Small-group discussion may take a variety of forms, including group work and cooperative learning. Small-group discussion may be used for brief periods. Dyads or triads, for example, can be formed to get students talking for a few minutes prior to a full-group discussion or other activity. Group work can be employed for portions of a class period, fifteen to forty minutes or more, depending on the question being discussed and the time necessary for completion. Cooperative learning groups can continue over the course of a unit, a semester, or even longer.

Like any discussion, group work will be more effective if a few simple guidelines are followed. Small-group discussion works best when groups are limited to four or five members, students are placed in heterogeneous groups (based on gender, ethnicity, and academic skills), students are held accountable for the work of the group and for their individual contributions, and students have an interesting decision to make or problem to resolve.

Large-group discussion can include a variety of formats and activities ranging from panel discussions and debates to mock trials and simulations. Large-group discussion formats vary depending on whether roles are assigned, on whether the full class participates at all times, and on the type of structure guiding the discussion. The discussion can focus on various kinds of problematic questions related to issues of the past, present, or future. Several styles of formats—Socratic, council, and Quaker—allow for full participation of all class members during the entire activity, but also provide strict guidelines for participation. In every format, the structured discussion of the full group is followed by comment and question.

Format Styles

Socratic. Students sit in a horseshoe pattern (if feasible), with the teacher at the opening of the horseshoe or moving about inside. The teacher directs questions about a thought-provoking selection of text (not a textbook) to individual students, asking them to explain the meaning of a particular passage, define the issue posed, take a stand on the author's viewpoint, react to the opinion of another student, or provide evidence to support a contention, etc.

Council. Students sit in one large circle. A talking stick is passed from student to student. Each person has the opportunity to speak, only when he or she has the stick. The guidelines are to talk honestly, be brief (one minute), and speak from the heart.

Quaker. Students sit in a large circle. Individual students may stand and move into the center of the circle—one person at a time—when moved to speak. Individuals may speak until they have completed all they want to say. Other than the individual speaking, students sit in silence throughout the activity; no questions or comments are allowed. Objects related to the topic may be used as props for student commentary; for example, on gender issues a Barbie doll or a baseball could be used.

Fishbowl. Students work in small groups discussing an issue or problem and send a representative from their group to sit inside the fish-bowl—an inner circle of concentric circles. Student representatives inside the fishbowl discuss the issue or problem and attempt to reach a consensus. Students outside the fishbowl may communicate with their representatives by passing notes (Grambs and Carr 1991).

Panel Discussion. A small group of students, seated in front of the class, hold a discussion on a topic, issue, or problem. Discussion is led by a moderator, usually the teacher. What will emerge is an informal conversation that is not as formally structured as a debate.

Debate. Two teams of students debate a resolution, pro versus con, in front of a class audience. The teams are given time to prepare arguments and counter-arguments. An opening statement from a member of the pro team is followed by a rebuttal statement from the con team, and then each member of the team is allowed a statement in turn, followed by rebuttal from the opposition. Following open debate and questions from the floor, team members may be asked to drop or reverse their roles.

Role Playing Debate. This is debate enhanced with specific biographical or situation-al roles. A debate on a zoning ruling, for example, might include an industrialist, a labor leader, and an unemployed worker.

Role Playing for Social Values. A small group of students prepares for and acts out a skit portraying a difficult, value-laden issue. Following the first enactment, the class discusses alternative choices, and members of the class are asked to act out their choices and the consequences they think will follow (Shaftel and Shaftel 1967).

Variations on Format Styles

There are many other variations on these formats, including the town meeting, congressional debate, presidential cabinet discussion, and personal decision making. Teachers should keep in mind the following aspects of conducting large-group discussion activities, especially when conducting one of the more complex ones:

- **Set** a context for the activity, providing sufficient background for the students so that they know the key facts and are clear about the key issue and its importance.
- **Make** sure the central question or resolution is simple, direct, and clear. The positions to be assumed by participants (pro, con, various roles, etc.) must also be clearly specified.
- **Clarify** procedures for students in advance and set behavior guidelines.
- **Allow** students time to prepare for the activity by studying their roles, ask questions, etc. If only a select number of students is involved in an activity, appoint "understudies" for key roles in case of absence.
- **Write** brief role descriptions for students, building in argument and evidence. A preferred option, when feasible, is to have students research their roles or positions.
- Ask students to think like the people in the roles they will play, and to argue from that viewpoint.
- **Serve** as moderator for the activity. After the class has gained experience with the exercise, appoint a student as moderator.
- **After the activity, have** a debriefing and connect the issue studied and the method to future lessons: What have we learned about this topic? What do we believe now? Why? What have we learned about participating in this type of discussion activity?

Mock Trial. Students assume the roles of judge (or a panel of judges), lawyers, witnesses, bailiff, jury, etc. After being given role descriptions, students conduct a mock trial and jury deliberation.

Simulation. This is an activity in which students re-create an environment simulating some social situation of the past or present. This activity involves individual and group decision making.

Concluding the Discussion

Most public forums use discussion as a method of resolving differences.

If a discussion involves a variety of opinions, students need an opportunity to tie the different viewpoints together. Most children are not adept at looking at the gestalt of the discussion, and are more likely to focus on particular arguments or incidents. Teachers can help students look for common or disparate themes by asking them to analyze the discussion. Students can also be asked to create a summary of what was said.

It is essential that students perform this function, rather than the teacher. Students need to practice the skill and will not do so if the teacher does it for them. Of course, younger children will need help in this process, but teachers should still avoid putting words into their mouths. Often, when students are asked to analyze or summarize, their perceptions are quite different from the teacher's. This is a perfect opportunity for formative evaluation.

Summaries and analyses do not have to take place in full-class sessions. All too often, it is the brightest or most verbal students who offer summaries and analysis while the rest of the class does not attempt to do so. Arranging students in pairs or small groups will allow the same processes to take place, but with more participation. Having students write a summary or analysis in their notebooks maximizes the level of participation and also improves the quality of the students' notes. After all, most students do not take notes during discussions unless the teacher reminds them to do so at certain points (although the knowledge that comes from the discussions may be even more valuable than notes based on direct instruction).

Journal writing is an excellent strategy for processing a discussion. This time for contemplation of the different viewpoints and reflection upon the student's own role in the discussion may make for a better understanding of the topic and of the self. A major body of research has identified student writing as a powerful learning tool.

In addition to summarizing, analyzing, and processing discussions, students may also focus on subsequent courses of action. Should the discussion be continued? Should some sort of resolution be proposed? Is social or political action viable? In other words, what do students want to do about the issue that has been discussed? This question, of course, may lead to an entirely new discussion, but it is a worthy one because it emphasizes that discussion does not have to be just for discussion's sake.

All of these approaches to concluding a discussion require time. When there are insufficient minutes during a class period to end a discussion properly, plans should be made to do so at the beginning of the next session-otherwise, students may not grasp the key ideas of the discussion, see their implications, or evaluate the experience. Teachers who are aware of the time will be more likely to manage the discussion to promote maximum learning.

ASSESSING STUDENT LEARNING OF AN ISSUE-ORIENTED CURRICULUM

Assessment work is 80 percent curriculum work, and curriculum work is 80 percent content selection, more or less.

Assessment means finding out what students know and are able to do. While not easy, this is also not terribly difficult. What has to be done generally is the work of imagination and ethnography: Imagining how learners might demonstrate what they have learned, and observing sociocultural life to detect which demonstrations might be most meaningful to the learners themselves, their teachers, and their communities. More difficult is the problem of deciding what knowledge and abilities deserve the concerted effort and persistence of teachers and students.

1 **CONTENT SELECTION:** What subject matters—knowledge and abilities—should students learn across the K through 12 years and be held accountable for having learned? Why these? Stated differently, and realizing that not everything of value can reasonably be taught in school, to which small, important sample of learnings should school time be directed—teachers', students', and administrators'—and based on what rationale?

2 **MULTIPLE OBJECTIVES:** How important is it to distinguish ability objectives from knowledge objectives, and to specify both in content selection and assessment work?

3 **CONCERTED EFFORT ON CORE CURRICULUM:** How much instructional time should converge on a common set of critically important learnings, such as the analysis of public issues, and how much should be left to teachers' own (and often divergent) designs? That is, to what extent should teachers coordinate their efforts, in their different grade levels and courses, on the same subject matter?

4 **ASSESSMENT:** How will students, their teachers, and their communities know if, and to what extent, students have learned these things? What are the different kinds of indicators that might represent the desired learning? And, what will be done about students who do not learn them to the degree deemed sufficient?

5 **CURRICULUM DIFFERENTIATION:** Which students will be expected to learn these things? Which students will not, and why? For example, will the majority of students in a high school study a middle-track American history curriculum that evades rigorous study of great ideas and issues? Will a disproportionate number of work-

ing-class students be assigned a less challenging and less interesting curriculum?

6 **OPPORTUNITIES TO LEARN:** What conditions are necessary and sufficient in schools to support student success on assessment tasks, and what can be done to establish them? A huge gap separates moneyed and poor schools; the development of "world-class standards," consequently, could further disadvantage those students who lack the institutional support needed to reach them.

Whether the activity in Table 1 rouses all these controversies or only a few, it invariably makes clear the intimate connection between assessment work and curriculum planning. This is because the items considered for the portfolio are at once performance assessments and curriculum goals.

Before proceeding, however, let us look at the full continuum of performance formats. The reader may wish to brainstorm additional examples of each, taking care that each example involves knowledge and/or abilities that are related to issue-oriented social studies.

- Constructed-response questions require students to produce an answer to a question rather than to select from an array of possible answers (as multiple-choice items do). In constructed-response items, questions may have just one correct answer or may be more open ended, allowing a range of responses. The form can also vary—filling in a blank, writing short answers, drawing an illustration.

- Essays have long been used to assess a student's understanding of a subject by having the student write a description, analysis, explanation, or summary of one or more paragraphs. Essays are used to demonstrate how well a student can use facts in context and structure a coherent discussion.

- Oral discourse was the earliest form of performance assessment. Before paper and pencil, chalk, and slate became affordable, school children rehearsed their lessons, recited their sums, and rendered their poems and prose aloud.
- Exhibitions are designed as comprehensive demonstrations of skills or competence. They often require students to produce a demonstration or live performance in class or before other audiences. Teachers or trained judges score performances against standards of excellence known to all participants ahead of time. Exhibitions require a broad range of competencies, are often interdisciplinary in focus, and require student initiative and creativity.
- Portfolios are usually files or folders that contain collections of a student's work. They furnish a broad portrait of individual performance, assembled over time. As students assemble their portfolios, they must evaluate their own work. (Office of Technology Assessment 1992,17)

Performance Assessment at the Program Level. At the program level, assessment concentrates on cumulative, long-term targets. Planning committees need to imagine performances that students might exhibit as the combined achievement of an articulated course of study. The case in Table 1 had planners decide the performances that students would collect at the end of the twelfth grade. Issue-oriented performance targets for this graduation portfolio might include those given as samples in Table 2. The three targets in Table 2 involve the production of coherent and informed civic discourse, both oral and written, which arguably is the most fundamental demand made on citizens in societies organized under democratic ideals (Parker 1996). This list of targets can serve as a one-page curriculum guide for a K through 12 issue-oriented social studies program, and it could double as a specification of performance assessments toward which the resources of the school district should be directed from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. This would be more valuable, in my judgment, than the elaborate K through 12 curriculum matrices that have become conventional in school district curriculum offices, with their long lists of objectives that so often are ignored. Each target represents a set of integrated, essential learnings. In an experimental high school in Seattle for "at-risk" students, my colleagues and I attempt to accomplish this using a two-column chart. Targets are listed in column one and related learnings are specified in column two. An example is presented in Table 3. Note that the example is aimed at the third graduation portfolio target in Table 2—*discussion competence*. In column one, note that the target is written as a set of general instructions to the student; also note that in the second column both categories of learning—knowledge and abilities—are specified. Column two was added when a parent committee read the target, then wanted to know what the individual learnings were that composed it. This was a helpful prompt, and it caused us to deduce specific learnings from the target, thus specifying them for instruction. The parents were worried, rightly so, that without this specification their children would be expected to perform well on the targeted task without having been adequately instructed on the component knowledge and skills. We have found this two-column format enormously helpful for communicating the school's curriculum and assessment plan in brief and straightforward fashion—both to one another and to our constituencies—the school's curriculum and assessment plan.

Performance Assessment at the Course Level. With a limited number of program-level learning outcomes and performance tasks in place, course planning can proceed in a

sharply focused way with the identification of course-level targets. At the course level, it is helpful to expand the chart's design from two to three columns. Performance targets again are listed in column one, related learnings in column two, and the third column lists key curriculum materials. These three columns present, in a concise manner, the course syllabus. This three-column chart may extend over a few pages, because a course typically has a handful of major targets, not just one. Presented in Tables 4 and 5 are excerpts for two courses. The first of the two is correlated to the third graduation portfolio target sketched in Table 2—*discussion competence*. It is one of several targets for an eleventh-grade American studies course. Note that it requires students to do extensive work with civic discourse. This work must be done across multiple public issues, thereby helping students to construct flexible, case-based understandings.

Table 2: Sample Tasks for Graduation Portfolio

- 1. Issues Identification** Working with three or four other students, you are to develop a list of public controversies (not private) drawn from current news media, then group and label them. Next, identify the two that best exemplify public conflicts that stem from differing interpretations of liberty, equality, justice, and public order/safety. These decisions should be made using group consensus-reaching procedures. Following this work, you will write, relying on "writing-process" procedures, an evaluation of the two issues selected and a narrative description of your group's consensus-reaching process.
- 2. Policy Analysis** You will be given a list of enduring public issues and asked to develop a conceptual model of one of your choosing. You will need to incorporate in your model at least these things:
 - a. Diversity.** Include an accounting of alternative positions on the matter referenced to the research that you and others have conducted (e.g., library research, surveys and interviews, popular magazines, art). Give evidence that you have included not only centrist positions but marginal views as well, and not only popular but also scholarly opinion.
 - b. Analogies.** Draw two or more historical analogies. Because these are enduring issues, earlier and culturally diverse cases that are somewhat analogous generally can be found. Find two or more, and evaluate the extent to which they parallel the present case.
 - c. Consequences.** Predict the consequences of three or more of the alternatives your research uncovered. Carefully support the predictions you make.
- 3. Discussion Competence** Collect audio and/or video recordings of your participation in discussions of public controversies. These will be small-group discussions in which public conflicts and policy alternatives are being interpreted and analyzed, and their consequences predicted. Along with the tapes, submit an annotated transcript of a selection of discussion excerpts displaying these and other competencies you identify: stating and identifying issues, using historical and social science knowledge, summarizing points of agreement and disagreement, inviting contributions from others, using strategies to move the discussion forward.

PROGRAM TARGETS

3. Discussion competence

Collect audio and/or video recordings of your participation in discussions of public controversies. These

will be small-group discussions in which public conflicts and policy alternatives are being interpreted and analyzed, and their consequences predicted. Along with the tapes, submit an annotated transcript of a selection of discussion excerpts displaying your competencies as both moderator and discussant, including these and others you identify: clarifying and analyzing issues and alternative courses of action, distinguishing among kinds of issues, listening as well as talking, seeking an array of views, and using strategies to move the discussion forward.

LEARNINGS

Essential Knowledge

- Public controversy/conflict
- Enduring problem areas versus current events
- Ethical, definitional, and empirical issues
- Liberty, diversity, order, democracy

Essential Abilities

- Reading and writing
- Clarifying
- Interpreting
- Analyzing
- Predicting
- Moderating
- Reasoning dialogically
- Listening to and expressing views
- Seeking alternative views
- Weighing alternatives
- Using strategies to move the discussion forward

Conclusion

The main idea of this chapter is that issue-oriented curriculum development and assessment are, at the higher levels of quality, the same thing. The boundaries between assessing student learning and deciding which content is worth teaching and learning are blurred as learning is conceptualized in performance terms. Accordingly, examples of performance assessment are provided, both for programs and individual courses, and these double as curriculum objectives tailored to the goals of issue-oriented education.

Still, we are left with the question: How can a commendable performance be distinguished from one that is mediocre or incompetent? A helpful tool is a scoring rubric. Scoring involves judging levels of quality displayed in targeted performances; a scoring rubric is the set of guidelines scorers use to decide the level of quality in a performance they have observed.

Developing a reliable rubric for a target is challenging work that requires a nuanced understanding of the target (McCollum 1994). Because it can be difficult, developing a rubric can function as a roadblock if it is attempted too soon. That is, it can prevent work on the more fundamental problem of developing ambitious targets for teaching and learning. I have seen this happen so often that I have come to expect it, and I can assure readers that the consequences do not vary: As planning groups become mired in scoring, they back away from the identification of ambitious targets. Because developing good targets for teaching and learning is the chief object of curriculum and assessment work, it is altogether unwise for teachers and curriculum supervisors to get sidetracked by scoring problems. Doing so lets the tail wag the dog.

Table 4: 11th Grade: American Studies (excerpt)

COURSE TARGETS	LEARNINGS	MATERIALS
Make audio recordings of your participation in discussions of three public controversies drawn from three major eras of B.S. history. Select the tape with the highest quality discussion and tape record or write an analysis of (a) the kinds of issues involved, (b) any road-blocks present in the discussion, (c) strategies used to move the discussion forward	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public controversy • Knowledge of the issue selected and types of issues (ethical, definitional of issues, empirical) • Eras of U.S. history • Roadblocks in discussions of public issues 	A. Discussion B. Issues <i>The Federalist Papers</i> and <i>Public Issues Series</i> (Social Science Education Consortium) or <i>Reasoning with Democratic Values</i> (Lockwood & Harris) or <i>Evaluating Viewpoints</i> (O'Reilly) C. Textbook <i>The U.S. and Its People</i> (King, McRae, Zola)

Table 5: 12th Grade: Senior Problems (excerpt)

COURSE TARGETS	LEARNINGS	MATERIALS
2. Develop a written and illustrated conceptual model of one of the public issues you examined in this course or a sixth you choose to investigate. Incorporate diverse viewpoints and historical analogies and historical analogies and weight the consequences of alternative policies.	Essential Knowledge <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public controversy • Viewpoints and history on the issue selected 	A. Issues <i>National Issues Forum</i> booklets (Kendall-Hunt); news media, libraries;

Essential Abilities (HOT)

- Reading and writing
- Conceptual modeling
- Finding and representing diverse perspectives
- Drawing and evaluating historical analogies
- Predicting and weighing consequences

government offices

B. Citizen Action

Civics for Democracy (Isaac)

C. Political Theory

Should We Consent To Be Governed?

(Nathanson)

After valued performance targets have been selected, it becomes necessary to identify gradations (standards/criteria) of performance quality.

Doing so has two effects. First, teachers and parents can find out what students know and are able to do in relation to these quality levels. Second, instruction can be fine-tuned; teachers can coach students toward performances at higher levels of quality. The explanation for both effects is this: The gradations needed for scoring are needed also for clarifying the target and, therefore, for fine-tuning instruction.

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Teaching Social Studies with Artifacts

Social Studies should be the study of how
Citizens in a society make personal and public
decisions on issues that affect their destiny.
-Jeffrey Lian

1. What are artifacts?

“Artifacts are commonly referred to as manmade objects or realia. . . . objects from the material, educational, or artistic culture of a society” (Field 141).

Social studies can be abstract, remote, and complex, often presenting information about people, places, and events in ways that are baffling to students. With certain techniques, however, teachers can teach social studies to young learners in ways that are concrete and relevant. Students are usually fascinated by the way in which artifacts reflect the context of the human experience. Whether the artifacts being examined relate to popular culture or social history, they illustrate the stories of individuals and groups and can be vehicles to stimulate interest. Artifacts serve as a way to interpret the story of a people. People define themselves by the art and music they create, and students can examine works to define a people. Students need to examine events within a cultural framework to explore art, music, and events (Levstik and Pappas, 1992). Students evaluate the aesthetic qualities of the artifacts to illustrate a culture; the story of a people and a cultural framework help students to learn about ancient history. The teacher uses these experiences to get the students talking and thinking about the topic. The student use artifacts to establish connection to people in the past and present places on earth.

Artifacts serve as a way to focus instruction; understanding occurs when students examine ideas in depth. One mark of excellent instruction consists of organizing and developing limited content to focus on key understandings (Brophy, 1992). Students use artifacts to construct their understanding of crucial social studies concepts; artifacts serve as a primary source of information about a culture. Students use thinking skills through the discovery method to interpret objects. In this particular case after the students gather the information they can then use it to interpret historical events through drama. In social studies students learn to sift evidence themselves before information interpretation occurs for them (Levstik, 1995). Students use evidence from artifacts to form insightful conclusions. The artifact helps the student focus on examining evidence; when students use evidence, artifacts become primary sources to learn about people and their lives. Culture is a significant factor in anthropology. Thus, anthropologists study a people's contributions in terms of language, music, art, literature, religion, art, law and so on. Artifacts, such as cooking utensils and weapons, also provide insight into a people's culture. Anthropologists analyze the data, then compare and contrast the culture with other cultures either of the same time or throughout the ages.

2. Why use artifacts in teaching?

- Increase students' interest and curiosity in content areas
- Make learning concrete and relevant
- Enhance understanding of textbooks and additional materials
- Stimulate classroom discussions and make them more meaningful
- Provide a way to motivate and challenge students
- Foster creative and critical thinking
- Make children active rather than passive learners

By having students examine artifacts, teachers stimulate them to practice the processes of a historian. With certain techniques, however, teachers can teach social studies to young learners in ways that are concrete and relevant. Students are usually fascinated by the way in which artifacts reflect the context of the human experience. Artifacts stimulate students' curiosity and help them focus on social studies, providing them with something concrete that they see and touch and serving as a springboard for students' questions.

3. What are some examples of artifacts?

- Recipes or foods
- Language
- Timeline/chronology of a book's events
- Maps, including historical maps
- Floor plans
- Songs or sheet music
- Old photographs
- Advertisements or price lists of a particular historical period
- Facsimiles of diaries, letters, legal documents (birth certificates, deeds, marriage licenses), and other primary source documents
- Old magazine and newspaper articles
- Period clothing
- Paintings, drawings, and other artwork
- Household utensils and tools
- Weapons
- Writing tools
- Samples of paper money and coins
- Toys

- Posters, prints, political cartoons, tickets, bills, receipts, postcards, invitations, and other memorabilia
- Old flags
- Historical books and textbooks

4.Sources of Artifacts:

A prime source for artifacts is suttler companies, which are vendors that serve historical reenactors by creating reproductions of tools, clothes, and accouterments. Typically found at historical reenactments, suttlers have supplies of materials for purchase. Museum shops and flea markets are other sources of inexpensive artifacts. Grandparents, parents, and craft and hobby lovers are potential contributors to a teacher's thematic kit. Once the word gets out that students use artifacts at school, teachers receive materials from attics as either loans or gifts. Simple reproductions of loaned items can be added to the artifact collection. Items need not be expensive to enrich the classroom. If the goal is to have students touch and use the artifact, then teachers can use reproductions, which are cheaper than authentic artifacts and easily replaced. Size is also a consideration: Small items are easily lost, and large items present storage difficulties. When putting together a kit, teachers must consider storage and portability.

Here is a list of sources of artifacts:

- Magazines and newspapers from the period (some may need to be printed from microfilm)
- Books about the cultural life of a certain place and period; for example, *The Cultural Life of the American Colonies*. Search WebPALS for your historical period and then add "social life and customs."
- Historical textbooks that children of the past would have used in school.
- Published diaries, journals, and letters.
- Historical atlases, available both in the curriculum and general reference collections.
- Libraries: catalogues
- Local museums and archives.
- Search Google by doing an advanced image search under your topic.
- Search your grandparents' attic.

In this section , several artifact kits are described that teachers can assemble and suggest how to use them in the classroom. For example, after a teacher reads three books to a class about three cultures, the children view a box with artifacts that represent one of the cultures. The students determine the culture to which the artifacts relate, giving evidence from the stories to support their selection. For young students to grasp an understanding of social studies, they must be able to place themselves on the continuum of time. Artifacts help them to do that. When viewing an object with smooth, worn wooden handles and a rusty metal extension, students become curious about its purpose. Once they discover that the artifact is a seventy five-year-old curling iron, they can compare it to a present-day curling iron with which most students are familiar. As they see differences between the two objects, their questioning about the reasons for the differences is a natural step. Through their questioning, the children grasp a major historical theme-that of change over a time. By having the students examine an artifact, the teacher can stimulate them to practice the processes of a historian, learning to perceive the remote as relevant, the complex as simple, and the abstract as concrete.

When looking at an artifact, children want to know what it is, how it was made and from what materials, and whether it is from our culture or another. They attempt to place the object in time, deciding who used it and for what purpose. A teacher can prompt students to link the object to their own experience by asking if they use anything similar. When students make the connection between an artifact and an individual, that artifact serves to link them with history. Each artifact has its story, which refers to the people associated with the object. When students ask questions and organize the resulting information, they create the outline of a story about the artifact and its human owner.

Such an exercise creates a setting for social education and moves students from passive listeners to active investigators who analyze the past and connect it to their lives. The method helps young learners place themselves in time by having them consider the past and think about the present. For historians and nonhistorians, reflecting on the past century is an enticing activity. To many present-day historians, who are just barely into the twenty-first century, the past century already seems remote. It will definitely be perceived that way by students in social studies classrooms. Nonetheless, today's teachers have endless opportunities to kindle students' interest in the past century and involve them in meaningful investigations that are traditionally carried out by historians--investigations that make the process of historical inquiry exciting. Set the stage for inquiry and investigation students share

a fascination with art and music; they link their experiences and the experiences of others through the media of art and music. Teachers help students incorporate music, dance, and art into their class. Instruction and enjoyable social studies is about real people (Dawson, 1989); students find artifacts laden with the fascinating story of people. The work and play in the lives of common persons as well as the famous or the infamous can be illustrated through artifacts. Students can then assume the role of any of these personalities based on the interests sparked by the tools and possessions of the individual. Students see the effort and incitement of emotion needed by a person to create a work. Arts get them to interpret because art renders both invention and human voice that is often transparent (Gabella, 1994). Students take an artifact and read a story of another person into it. While they see artifacts from retrospect, they depend upon the connection between an artist and society to help the student make generalizations about a society. Lievrouw and Pope (1994) view social art knowledge from art history as retrospective while the sociology of art informs the links between artists and their world. Artists always create within a social context and reflect their perceptions of society through their work for another to interpret. Students bring contemporary views and attitudes to help make connections with the past; students bring knowledge to school that they can use to extrapolate about real people. They attempt to place the object in time, deciding who used it and for what purpose. A teacher can prompt students to link the object to their own experience by asking if they use anything similar. Such an exercise creates a setting for social education and moves students from passive listeners to active investigators who analyze the past and connect it to their lives. The method helps young learners place themselves in time by having them consider the past and think about the present.

Teaching social studies with artifacts has another advantage : students grow in historical thinking as they examine artifacts. Artifacts lead students from an affective bond through an artifact with other people whom they have not yet met. Egan calls upon teachers of the social studies to take an "affective orientation" (1989). Through capturing the imagination of students those students link emotionally with peoples of the past; the affective orientation allows students to examine values within the context of a culture. By using an object box at the beginning of a lesson, the teacher motivates students to read. The box serves as a sensory encyclopedia through which students kinesthetically explore the object while seeking more information about the relation of the artifact to its culture.

4.1. A Resource Kit

A resource kit, such as the 1750 French colonial kit, is a collection of five or more artifacts that

relate to a specific time period, culture, or theme. Examples of such artifacts include textiles, small toys, kitchen and other household objects, writing tools, samples of currencies, and drawings. With a resource kit, students use a multisensory approach for exploring ideas and examining the lives of people and aspects of a culture. Audio presentations might include recordings of music, sound effects, speeches, or oral histories. Food, soaps, perfumes, tobacco, and herbs, which appeal to the senses of taste and smell, also link contemporary life to people of the past.

Crist (1975) described how artifacts can support vocabulary acquisition. In the case of the 1750 resource kit, the teacher generates a list of words related to French colonial objects and gives the list to the students. The words on the list are related to the kit contents and how they depict French colonial life in 1750. The teacher leads a brief discussion of each artifact in the kit, incorporating the words on the list. The students then underline, check off, or define the words. As they work in small groups, the children discuss what they see in the kit and use the words on the list, marking them off when spoken. Students must then use and check off the words in contextual writing, perhaps by developing a diary for a person from that time.

4.2.Primary Source Enhancement Kit

Social studies teachers often want students to work with primary sources, such as diaries and correspondence. A primary source enhancement kit supplements students' background knowledge, using artifacts associated with events recorded in a primary source such as a diary. An artifact serves as an illustration, a context clue, and a vehicle for students' additional questions about the text. Students can explore the text and artifact together to determine more about the culture that produced both.

Once they have examined the objects, students can create a graphic organizer showing what was said about an item some years ago, what the students know about it, and how the item has changed since 1905. While students experiment with jacks, wooden tops, and marbles games, often unfamiliar to today's students, they could speculate about what changes in society caused such toys to decline in popularity. They should determine whether change was driven by science and technology, economics, or individual and institutional causes. Students can use one half of a sheet of paper to draw and label a cause, either an invention or a societal change, and the other half to describe and illustrate the effect of the change. The students can use the photographs of a hero from a history and his diary. On one of their charts, the students might cite a quotation from the diary and evidence from an artifact to

support their interpretations of this hero's life. When students connect artifacts with primary sources in graphic organizers, they are practicing metacognition skills (Palincsar and Brown 1983).

4.3.Symbol Kits

In a symbol kit, the artifacts have additional meanings. For a Civil War hat kit, a teacher might include a kepi and forage hat, one blue and the other gray. Small numbers on the hat indicate the regiment, and a letter represents the company. Small metal plates stand for the divisions of ordnance, cavalry, artillery, infantry, engineers, or musicians. After seeing artifacts of that type, students find answers to their questions through research and gain a better understanding of the use of symbols. As the students learn to decipher symbols of color, nomenclature, and function, they learn more about communication and organization.

The ability to recognize and analyze symbols is an important skill. Symbols only have meaning when the students understand what they refer to. Once students understand the allusion, then accelerated communication can occur, with the symbols acting as a shorthand version of information.

4.4.An Economic Process Kit

An economic process kit illustrates the steps used in processing and manufacturing goods. The artifacts show the contributions of the many people who shape a natural resource into a finished product. The impact of geography on trade and commerce can be addressed in each of the steps illustrated by the artifacts. Students pull out trade knives, hand axes, beads, and jewelry. They ask, "Where did this come from?" "Wow!" They turn items over and over in their hands getting the feel of them. The students in split class explore artifacts. The list of goods with relative trade values creates an opportunity for economic education. "Is this real?" Students stop reading the diary and start searching for artifacts when they open the 1900 kit. They find information about the life of the hero mentioned above as they peer curiously and intently into the box.

A kit on cotton, for example, contains artifacts that trace cotton production from agricultural stage to manufactured stage. The artifacts can stimulate discussion of slavery, the industrial revolution, the history of labor, modern agriculture, international economics, and global interdependence. To develop an economic process kit about cotton, a teacher gathers artifacts that relate to the cotton industry-a bag of cotton seeds, a cotton bale, a miniature bale of cotton, a model of Eli Whitney's cotton gin, a wooden thread spool, a spool from a cotton cloth weaving loom, and samples of cotton cloth. For easy handling by the students, each

artifact should be roughly the same size. After students identify the artifacts, as they take them from the box, they can group them according to their relationship to the agricultural or industrial aspects of the process. The students can sequence the artifacts to show steps in developing the manufactured product from a natural resource. Next students draw cartoons showing a picture of each step in the process and label each frame with a caption. Students form small groups to share their cartoons and next work independently to make their cartoons into flow charts, which they compare as they return to their small groups.

4.5. Packs

A pack is a collection of artifacts that allows students to look at an individual life in a given culture and contains the possessions that people used in their daily lives and work. As they remove items in the pack, the students develop an interest in the individual who might have used them, similar to students' and adults' interest in biographies. The students can work in cooperative groups to create a then-and now comparison chart as they record the items found in the kit and add the items that they use now on a weekend camping trip. As they find that some items have changed, even though basic needs remain the same, students are able to draw historical parallels.

4.6.Kit for an Archaeology Dig

With a kit focused on archaeology, students can practice the skills needed for a dig and through a set of activities begin thinking as if they were archaeologists. Students examine artifacts and hypothesize about the lives the artifacts reflect. As students examine the activities in the kit, they sustain, reject, or modify their hypotheses. The activities and artifacts encourage students to look yet again at their hypotheses.

Teachers identify the archaeological principles they wish to address and place activities in the kit to illustrate those concepts. To examine the idea of stratigraphy-that the oldest stuff is always on the bottom and that each succeeding layer is younger until the present is on the top-students untie a small bundle of folded newspapers. String circles a week's worth of newspapers, with Sunday's on the bottom and Saturday's on top, as if for recycling. The students dramatize what happens to the newspaper from the time it is delivered to its removal as rubbish to explain why and how the oldest layers are on the bottom. Their scenario goes like this: The newspaper is left on the front step. Mom picks it up to read, and daughter carries it out with the trash placing it next to the back step. The next day a paper arrives on the front step where brother collects it and reads the comics before abandoning it for dad to read and

take out to recycle. Dad drops it on top of the last paper near the back step, and the recycling stack starts to grow.

Independent reading of social studies textbooks is not necessarily the best way for pupils to acquire new social studies knowledge (Herber and Newlson-Nerber1987) because the reading level of the text may exceed some students' reading proficiencies. Students can enlarge their specialized vocabulary, which will be necessary for reading about historical events, by examining artifacts that have been grouped into kits by the teacher. Their handling of artifacts in a resource kit provides students with a tactile experience that helps them visualize another time and place and brings history into the realm of their understanding

Besides, teaching social studies provides opportunities for teaching about critical thinking and the analysis of values (Brophy, 1990). Students engaged in critical thinking make decisions as to the nature of the worth of a culture using their value system and their contemporary point of view. Those students who use analysis, syntheses, and evaluation to gather information from artifacts develop thinking skills they use in both social studies class and in their life. Artifacts serve as windows to examine culture, evidence, connections, and thinking skills.

5.Critical Thinking

The students spend time sharpening their critical thinking skills; an educated citizenry in a democracy requires its members to think in order to solve problems. Lee said, "He brings in a lot of topics.... he really gets us thinking, and he gets us to ask a lot of questions." The students understand to think requires them to be questioners, not just the questioned, and the class environment provides an introduction to thinking. A group of five students go to one of the four learning stations set up in the room; at one learning station is a poster with a couple of questions asking the students to identify the bronze statue of a stylized antelope as either an animal god or a mother god. The questions at the learning station prompt the students to justify why they picked the response they did; the final poster at the learning center asks the students to determine the materials used to form the statue. The conversation starts in a learning station when the students evaluate the materials that a culture used to produce its art. The students must argue their hypothesis and use sensory information to determine the natural resources used to make the statue. Students brought background information to help them reach a decision; the students were quick to apply their information about mother gods or animal gods to the station. They were a bit slower to apply their knowledge of how wood and metal looks and feels; later in the class this information involves students in the processes

of analysis and evaluation to solve problems. Once students solve problems through critical thinking they apply their knowledge to decision making.

6.Summary

Teachers can use artifact kits to enrich their teaching of social studies. With artifacts, teachers take the innate interests of the student and combine them with the topic under study. Students profit from the experience of working with artifacts in the social studies classroom because the abstract, remote, and complex become tangible, immediate, and obvious. Students establish connection to location of cultures and understanding for people from the past. Students gather information through classroom procedures to examine music and artifacts. The implication of working with artifacts for the social studies field includes students getting opportunities to do critical thinking when they use the experiences they bring with them from their life into the classroom and use these to interpret the lives of people from their artifacts. Student behavior focuses on interpretation through critical thinking. Critical thinking as a part of social studies supports the idea of students becoming decision makers; students can evaluate a culture or the present by the artifacts it creates and leaves behind. Pre-service teachers need experience designing discovery activities in their university methods classes; in addition, they need experience in both observing and working with children in field experiences where artifacts are used in classroom teaching. Teacher educators need to provide models of artifact instruction appropriate to primary, intermediate, and secondary students; moreover, teacher educators need to develop complex questioning strategies to guide young teachers as they help students to develop their thinking in progressively more rigorous experiences.

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING

(BY ROGER T. JOHNSON AND DAVID W. JOHNSON)

Changing Paradigms Of Teaching

1. Nature Of Cooperative Learning:
2. Basic Elements That Make Cooperation Work.
3. Research Support For Using Cooperative Learning.
4. Types Of Cooperative Learning
 - a. Formal Cooperative Learning
 - b. Informal Cooperative Learning
 - c. Cooperative Base Groups

Table 1: Comparison of old and new paradigms of teaching

Factor	Old Paradigm Of Teaching	New Paradigm Of Teaching
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Knowledge	Transferred From Faculty To Students	Jointly Constructed By Students And Faculty
Students	Passive Vessel To Be Filled By Faculty's Knowledge	Active Constructor, Discoverer, Transformer of Own Knowledge
Faculty Purpose	Classify And Sort Students	Develop Students' Competencies And Talents
Relationships	Impersonal Relationships Among Students And Between Faculty And Students	Personal Transaction Among Students And Between Faculty And Students
Context	Competitive/Individualistic	Cooperative Learning In Classroom And Cooperative Teams Among Faculty
Assumption	Any Expect Can Teach	Teaching Is Complex And Requires Considerable Training

Key Messages

- 1. Organizational Structure Has To Change:**
 - a. From Mass-Production, Competitive, Loosely Coupled Structure
 - b. To Team-Based, Cooperative, High Performance Structure
- 2. Both Students And Faculty Work In Teams:**
 - a. Students Work In Cooperative Learning Groups
 - b. Faculty Work In Collegial Teaching Teams
- 3. Teams Continuously Improve The Quality Of The Processes Of Learning And Instruction.**

Definitions

*A **learning goal** is a desired future state of competence or mastery in the subject area being studied. A **goal structure** specifies the type of interdependence among individuals as they strive to accomplish their goals. Interdependence may be positive (cooperation), negative (competition), or none (individualistic efforts).*

Cooperation: We Sink Or Swim Together

Individuals work together to achieve shared goals. Individuals work together to maximize their own and each other's learning.

- Work in small, often heterogeneous groups
- Strive for all group members' success
- What benefits self benefits others
- Joint success is celebrated
- Rewards are viewed as unlimited
- Evaluated by comparing performance to preset criteria

Competition: I Swim, You Sink; I Sink, You Swim

Individuals work against each other to achieve a goal only one or a few can attain.

- Work alone

- Strive to be better than classmates

- What benefits self deprives others

- Own success and others' failure is celebrated

- Rewards are limited

- Graded on a curve or ranked from "best" to "worst"

Individualistic: We Are Each In This Alone

Individuals work by themselves to accomplish learning goals unrelated to those of other individuals.

- Work alone

- Strive for own success

- What benefits self does not affect others

- Own success is celebrated

- Rewards are viewed as unlimited

- Evaluated by comparing performance to preset criteria

Basic Elements Of Cooperative Teams

Positive Interdependence

Team members perceive that they need each other in order to complete the group's task ("sink or swim together"). Instructors may structure positive interdependence by establishing **mutual goals** (maximize own and each other's productivity), **joint rewards** (if all group members achieve above the criteria, each will receive bonus points), **shared resources** (members have different expertise), and **assigned roles** (summarizer, encourager of participation, elaborator).

Individual Accountability

Assessing the quality and quantity of each member's contributions and giving the results to the group and the individual.

Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction

Team members promote each other's productivity by helping, sharing, and encouraging efforts to produce. Members explain, discuss, and teach what they know to teammates. Instructors structure teams so that members sit knee-to-knee and talk through each aspect of the tasks they are working to complete

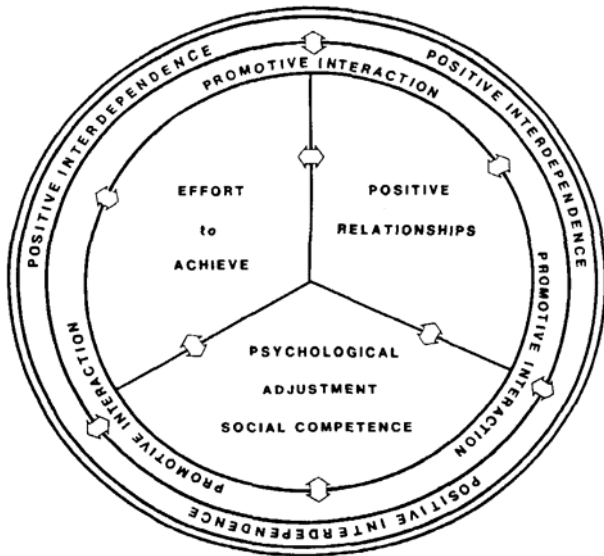
Interpersonal and Small Group Skills

Groups cannot function effectively if members do not have and use the needed social skills. Instructors emphasize these skills as purposefully and precisely as job-performance skills. Collaborative skills include instructorship, decision-making, trust- building, communication, and conflict-management skills.

Group Processing

Groups need specific time to discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships among members. Instructors structure group processing by

assigning such tasks as (a) list at least three member actions that helped the group be successful and (b) list one action that could be added to make the group even more successful tomorrow. Instructors also monitor the groups and give feedback on how well the groups are working together.



Types Of Cooperative Learning

Formal Cooperative Groups

Students work together for one or several class sessions to achieve shared learning goals and complete jointly specific tasks and assignments. Formal cooperative learning groups provide the foundation for all other cooperative learning procedures. They are structured through pre-instructional decisions, setting the task and the cooperative structure, monitoring the groups while they work and intervening to improve taskwork and teamwork, and evaluating student learning and processing group functioning.

Informal Cooperative Learning Groups

Students work together in temporary, ad hoc groups that last for only one discussion or class period to achieve joint learning goals. Informal cooperative learning groups are used to focus student attention on the material to be learned, create an expectation set and mood conducive to learning, ensure students cognitively process the material being taught, and provide closure to an instructional session.

Cooperative Base Groups

Long-term groups (lasting for at least one semester or year) with stable membership whose primary responsibility is to give each member the support, encouragement, and assistance he or she needs to progress academically and develop cognitively and socially in healthy ways.

Informal Cooperative Learning consists of having students work together to achieve a joint learning goal in temporary, ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to one class period

(Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1998b; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998). Informal cooperative learning groups also ensure that misconceptions, incorrect understanding, and gaps in understanding are identified and corrected, and learning experiences are personalized. Every 10 to 15 minutes, students should be asked to discuss/process what they are learning. Breaking up lectures with short cooperative processing times will give you slightly less lecture time, but will help counter what is proclaimed as the main problem of lectures: *"The information passes from the notes of the professor to the notes of the student without passing through the mind of either one."* During lecturing and direct teaching the instructor ensures that students do the intellectual work of organizing material, explaining it, summarizing it, and integrating it into existing conceptual networks. The **procedure** for using informal cooperative learning consists of "*focused discussions*" before and after the lecture (bookends) and interspersing turn-to-your-partner discussions throughout the lecture.

1. **Introductory Focused Discussion:** Plan one or two questions that will help students **organize in advance** what they know about the topic to be presented and create an **expectation set** about what the lecture will cover. Assign students to pairs or triads. Explain (a) the task of answering the questions in a four-minute time period and (b) the positive goal interdependence of reaching consensus.
2. **Turn-To-Your-Partner Discussions:** Divide the lecture into 10 to 15 minute segments. This is about the length of time a motivated adult can concentrate on information being presented. After each segment, ask students to turn to the person next to them and work cooperatively in answering a question (specific enough so that students can answer it in about three minutes) that requires students to cognitively process the material just presented. The procedure is:
 - a. Each student formulates his or her answer.
 - b. Students share their answer with their partner.
 - c. Students listen carefully to their partner's answer.
 - d. The pairs **create** a new answer that is superior to each member's initial formulation by integrating the two answers, building on each other's thoughts, and synthesizing.

The question may require students to:

- | | |
|--|--|
| a. Summarize the material just presented | d. Solve a problem |
| b. Give a reaction to the theory, concepts, or information presented | e. Relate material to past learning and integrate it into conceptual framework |
| c. Predict what is going to be presented next; hypothesize | f. Resolve conceptual conflict created by presentation |

Ensure students are **individually accountable** for answering the question by randomly choosing two or three students to give 30 second summaries of their pair discussions. Repeat this sequence of lecture-segment and pair-discussion until the lecture is completed.

3. **Closure Focused Discussion:** Give a closure discussion task that requires students to summarize what they have learned from the lecture. The discussion should result in students integrating what they have just learned into existing conceptual frameworks, point students toward what the homework will cover or what will be presented in the next class session, and identifies questions they have about what was presented. This provides closure to the lecture.

Informal cooperative learning ensures students are actively involved in understanding what they are learning. It also provides time for instructors to gather their wits, reorganize notes, take a deep breath, and move around the class listening to what students are saying. Listening to student discussions can give instructors direction and insight into how well students understand the concepts and material being taught (who, unfortunately, may not have graduate degrees in the topic you are presenting).

Purposes Of Informal Cooperative Learning

Form a pair. Rank order the following purposes of informal cooperative learning from most important (“1”) to least important (“7”).

	Focuses student attention on the material to be learned.
	Sets a mood conducive to learning.
	Helps cognitively organize in advance the material to be covered in a class session.
	Ensures that students cognitively process the material being taught.
	Provides closure to an instructional session.
	Allows for identifying and correcting misconceptions, incorrect understanding, and gaps in comprehension.
	Personalizes learning experiences.

Introductory Focused Discussion Pairs

To prepare for the class session students may be required to complete a short initial focused discussion task. Plan your lecture around a series of questions that will help students **organize in advance** what they know about the topic to be presented and create an **expectation set** about what the lecture will cover. Write the questions on an overhead transparency or on the board.

Task: Answer the questions.

Cooperative: Create, with your partner, one answer for each question, using the following sequence:

1. Each student **formulates** his or her answer.
 2. Students **share** their answer with their partner.
 3. Students **listen** carefully to partner's answer.
 4. Pairs **create** a new answer that is superior to each member's initial formulation through the process of association, building on each other's thoughts, and synthesizing.
- The discussion is aimed at promoting advance organizing of what the students know about the topic to be presented and to set expectations as to what the lecture will cover.

Expected Criteria For Success: Each student able to explain answers.

Individual Accountability: One member from the pair will be randomly chosen to explain the answer. Periodically use the simultaneous explaining procedure of having each group member explain the group's answers to a member of another group.

Expected Behaviors: Explaining, listening, synthesizing by all members.

Intergroup Cooperation: Whenever it is helpful, check procedures, answers, and strategies with another group.

Informal Cooperative Learning Planning Form

Description of the Lecture

1. **Lecture Topic:** _____
2. **Objectives** (Major Understandings Students Need To Have At The End Of The Lecture):
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
3. **Time Needed:** _____
4. **Method For Assigning Students To Pairs Or Triads:** _____
5. **Method Of Changing Partners Quickly:** _____
6. **Materials** (such as transparencies listing the questions to be discussed and describing the **formulate, share, listen, create** procedure):

Advanced Organizer Question(s)

Questions should be aimed at promoting **advance organizing** of what the students know about the topic to be presented and **establishing expectations** as to what the lecture will cover.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Cognitive Rehearsal Questions

List the specific questions to be asked every 10 or 15 minutes to ensure that participants understand and process the information being presented. Instruct students to use the **formulate, share, listen, and create** procedure.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Monitor by systematically observing each pair. Intervene when it is necessary. Collect data for whole class processing. Students' explanations to each other provide a window into their minds that allows you to see what they do and do not understand. Monitoring also provides an opportunity for you to get to know your students better.

Summary Question(s)

Give an ending discussion task and require students to come to consensus, write down the pair or triad's answer(s), sign the paper, and hand it in. Signatures indicate that students agree with the answer, can explain it, and guarantee that their partner(s) can explain it. The questions could (a) ask for a summary, elaboration, or extension of the material presented or (b) preface the next class session.

1. _____
2. _____

Celebrate Students Hard Work

1. _____
2. _____

Formal Cooperative Learning

Formal cooperative learning is students working together, for one class period to several weeks, to achieve shared learning goals and complete jointly specific tasks and assignments (such as decision making or problem solving, completing a curriculum unit, writing a report, conducting a survey or experiment, or reading a chapter or reference book, learning vocabulary, or answering questions at the end of the chapter) (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1998). Any course requirement or assignment may be reformulated to be cooperative. In formal cooperative learning groups teachers:

1. **Make Preinstructional Decisions:** In every lesson you (a) formulate objectives, (b) decide on the size of groups, (c) choose a method for assigning students to groups, (d) decide which roles to assign group members, (e) arrange the room, and (f) arrange the materials students need to complete the assignment.
2. **Explain the Task and Cooperative Structure:** In every lesson you (a) explain the academic assignment to students, (b) explain the criteria for success, (c) structure positive interdependence, (d) explain the individual accountability, and (e) explain the behaviors you expect to see during the lesson.
3. **Monitor and Intervene:** While you (a) conduct the lesson, you (b) monitor each learning group and (c) intervene when needed to improve task work and teamwork, and (d) bring closure to the lesson.
4. **Evaluate and Process:** You (a) assess and evaluate the quality and quantity of student achievement, (b) ensure students carefully process the effectiveness of their learning groups, (c) have students make a plan for improvement, and (d) have students celebrate the hard work of group members.

If students need help in completing the assignment, they are encouraged to first ask classmates for assistance and request help from the instructor second. Students are expected to interact with group mates, share ideas and materials, support and encourage each other's academic achievement, orally explain and elaborate the concepts and strategies being learned, and hold each other accountable for completing the assignment at a high level of excellence. A criterion-referenced evaluation is used. In each class session instructors must make the choice of being "*a sage on the stage*" or "*a guide on the side*." In doing so they might remember **the challenge in teaching is not covering the material for the students, it's uncovering the material with the students.**

All cooperative learning (formal, informal, base groups) is characterized by five basic elements:

1. **Positive Interdependence:** Group members perceive that they need each other in order to complete the group's task ("sink or swim together"). Instructors may structure positive interdependence by establishing **mutual goals** (maximize own and each other's productivity), **joint rewards** (if all group members achieve above the criteria, each will receive bonus points), **shared resources** (members have different expertise), and **assigned roles** (summarizer, encourager of participation, elaborator).
2. **Individual Accountability:** Assessing the quality and quantity of each member's contributions and giving the results to the group and the individual.
3. **Promotive (Face-To-Face) Interaction:** Group members promote each other's productivity by helping, sharing, and encouraging efforts to produce. Members explain, discuss, and teach what they know to teammates. Instructors structure groups so that members sit knee-to-knee and talk through each aspect of the tasks they are working to complete.
4. **Interpersonal and Small Group Skills:** Groups cannot function effectively if members do not have and use the needed social skills. Instructors emphasize these skills as purposefully and precisely as job-performance skills. Cooperative skills include leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication, and conflict-management skills.
5. **Group Processing:** Groups need specific time to discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships among members. Instructors structure group processing by assigning such tasks as (a) list at least three member actions that helped the group be successful and (b) list one action that could be added to make the group even more successful tomorrow. Instructors also monitor the groups and give feedback on how well the groups are working together.

The Instructor's Role in Cooperative Learning

Make Pre-Instructional Decisions

Specify Academic and Social Skills Objectives: every lesson has both (a) academic and (b) interpersonal and small group skills objectives

Decide on Group Size: Learning groups should be small (groups of two or three members, four at the most)

Decide on Group Composition (Assign Students to Groups): Assign students to groups randomly or select groups yourself. Usually you will wish to maximize the heterogeneity in each group.

Assign Roles: Structure student-student interaction by assigning roles such as Reader, recorder, Encourager of Participation and Checker Understanding.

Plan Materials: Arrange materials to give a „sink or swim together,, message. Give only one paper to the group or give each member part of the material to be learned.

Explain Task And Cooperative Structure

Explain the Academic Task: Explain the task, the objectives of the lesson, the concepts and principles students need to know to complete the assignment, and the procedures they are to follow

Explain the Criteria for Success: Student work should be evaluated on a criteria-referenced basis. Make clear your criteria for evaluating students' work.

***Structure Positive Interdependence:** Students must believe they "sink or swim together." Always establish mutual goals (students are responsible for their own learning and the learning of all other group members). Supplement, goal interdependence with celebration/reward, resource, role, and identity interdependence.

***Structure Intergroup Cooperation:** Have groups check with and help other groups. Extend the benefits of cooperation to the whole class.

***Structure Individual Accountability:** Each student must feel responsible for doing his or her share of the work and helping the other group members. Ways to ensure accountability are frequent oral quizzes of group members picked at random, individual tests, and assigning a member the role of Checker for Understanding.

***Specify Expected Behaviors:** The more specific you are about the behaviors you want to see in the groups, the more likely students will do them. Social skills may be classified as **forming** (staying with the group, using quiet voices), **functioning** (contributing, encouraging others to participate), **formulating** (summarizing, elaborating), and **fermenting** (criticizing ideas, asking for justification). Regularly teach the interpersonal and small group skills you wish to see used in the learning groups.

Monitor and Intervene

***Arrange Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction:** Conduct the lesson in ways that ensure that students promote each other's success face-to-face

Monitor Students' Behavior: This is the fun part! While students are working, you circulate to see whether they understand the assignment and the material, give immediate feedback and reinforcement, and praise good use of group skills. Collect observation data on each group and student.

Intervene to Improve Taskwork and Teamwork: Provide **taskwork assistance** (clarify, reteach) if students do not understand the assignment. Provide **teamwork assistance** if students are having difficulties in working together productively.

Evaluate and Process

Evaluate Student Learning: Assess and evaluate the quality and quantity of student learning. Involve students in the assessment process.

***Process Group Functioning:** Ensure each student receives feedback, analyzes the data on group functioning, sets an improvement goal, and participates in a team celebration. Have groups routinely list three things they did well in working together and one thing they will do better tomorrow. Summarize as a whole class. Have groups celebrate their success and hard work.

Cooperative Lesson Planning Form

Grade Level: _____ Subject Area: _____ Date: _____

Lesson: _____

Objectives

Academic: _____

Social Skills: _____

Preinstructional Decisions

Group Size: _____ Method Of Assigning Students: _____

Roles: _____

Room Arrangement: _____

Materials: _____

◇ One Copy Per Group

◇ One Copy Per Person

◇ Jigsaw

◇ Tournament

◇ Other: _____

Explain Task And Cooperative Goal Structure

1. Task: _____

2. Criteria For Success: _____

3. Positive Interdependence: _____

4. Individual Accountability: _____

5. Intergroup Cooperation: _____

6. Expected Behaviors: _____

Monitoring And Intervening

1. Observation Procedure: _____ Formal _____ Informal

2. Observation By: _____ Teacher _____ Students _____ Visitors

3. Intervening For Task Assistance: _____

4. Intervening For Teamwork Assistance: _____

5. Other: _____

Evaluating And Processing

1. Assessment of Members' Individual Learning: _____

2. Assessment of Group Productivity: _____

3. Small Group Processing: _____

4. Whole Class Processing: _____

5. Charts And Graphs Used: _____

6. Positive Feedback To Each Student: _____

7. Goal Setting For Improvement: _____

8. Celebration: _____

9. Other: _____

Jigsaw Procedure

Task: Think of a reading assignment you will give in the near future. Divide the assignment in three parts. Plan how you will use the jig-saw procedure. Script out exactly what you will say to your class in using each part of the jig-saw procedure.

Procedure: One way to structure positive interdependence among group members is to use the jigsaw method of creating resource interdependence. The steps for structuring a "jigsaw" lesson are:

1. **Cooperative Groups:** Distribute a set of materials to each group. The set needs to be divisible into the number of members of the group (2, 3, or 4 parts). Give each member one part of the set of materials.
2. **Preparation Pairs:** Assign students the cooperative task of meeting with someone else in the class who is a member of another learning group and who has the same section of the material and complete two tasks:
 - a. Learning and becoming an expert on their material.
 - b. Planning how to teach the material to the other members of their groups.
3. **Practice Pairs:** Assign students the cooperative task of meeting with someone else in the class who is a member of another learning group and who has learned the same material and share ideas as to how the material may best be taught. These "practice pairs" review what each plans to teach their group and how. The best ideas of both are incorporated into each's presentation.
4. **Cooperative Groups:** Assign students the cooperative tasks of:
 - a. Teaching their area of expertise to the other group members.
 - b. Learning the material being taught by the other members.
5. **Evaluation:** Assess students' degree of mastery of all the material. Reward the groups whose members all reach the preset criterion of excellence.

The GIG Procedure for Giving Tests

You should frequently give tests and quizzes to assess (a) how much each student knows and (b) what students still need to learn. Whenever you give a test, cooperative learning groups can serve as bookends by preparing members to take the test and providing a setting in which students review the test. Using the following procedure will result in (a) optimizing each student's preparation for the test, (b) making each student accountable to peers for his or her performance on the test, (c) assessing how much each student knows, (d) assessing what students still need to learn, (e) providing students with immediate clarification of what they did not understand or learn, (f) providing students with immediate remediation of what they did not learn, (g) preventing arguments between you and your students over which answer are correct and why. The procedure is.

1. **Group:** Students prepare for, and review for, a test in cooperative learning groups.
2. **Individual:** Each student takes the test individually, making two copies of his or her answers. Students submit one set of answer to you to grade and keep one set for the group discussion.
3. **Group:** Students retake the test in their cooperative learning groups.

Preparing For A Test In Cooperative Groups

Students meet in their cooperative learning groups and are given (a) study questions and (b) class time to prepare for the examination. The task is for students to discuss each study question and come to consensus about its answer. The cooperative goal is to ensure that all group members understand how to answer the study questions correctly. If students disagree on the answer to any study questions, they must find the page number and paragraph in the resource material explaining the relevant information or procedures. When the study/review time is up, the students give each other encouragement for doing well on the upcoming test.

Taking the Test Individually

Each student takes the test individually, making two copies of his or her answers. The task (and individual goal) is to answer each test question correctly. Students submit one copy of the answers to you (the instructor). You score the answers and evaluate student performance against a preset criterion of excellence. Students keep one copy for the group discussion. After all group members have finished the test, the group meets to take the test again.

Retaking the Test In Cooperative Groups

Students meet in their cooperative learning groups and retake the test. The **task** is to answer each question correctly. The **cooperative goal** is to ensure that all group members understand the material and procedures covered by the test. Members do so by (a) reaching consensus on the answer for each question and the rationale or procedure underlying the answer and (b) ensuring that all members can explain the answer and the rationale or procedure. The procedure is for members to:

1. Compare their answers on the first question.
2. If there is agreement, one member explains the rationale or procedure underlying the question and the group moves on to question two.
3. If there is disagreement, members find the page number and paragraph in the resource materials explaining the relevant information or procedures. The group is responsible for ensuring that all members understand the material they missed on the test. If necessary, group members assign review homework to each other. When all members agree on the answer and believe other members comprehend the material, the group moves on to question two.
4. The learning groups repeat this procedure until they have covered all test questions.
5. The group members celebrate how hard members have worked in learning the material and how successful they were on the test.

Cooperative Base Groups

Cooperative base groups are long-term, heterogeneous cooperative learning groups with stable membership. Members' primary responsibilities are to (a) provide each other with support, encouragement, and assistance in completing assignments, (b) hold each other accountable for striving to learn, and (c) ensure all members are making good academic progress. Typically, cooperative base groups (a) are heterogeneous in membership (especially in terms of achievement motivation and task orientation), (b) meet regularly (for example,

daily or biweekly), and (c) last for the duration of the class (a semester or year) or preferably until the students are graduated.

There are two ways base groups may be used. The **first** is to have a base group in each course which stays together only for the duration of the course. The **second** is to organize all students in the school into school base groups that function as an essential component of school life. School base groups stay together for at least a year and preferably until all members are graduated. The **agendas** of both types of base groups can include:

1. **Academic support tasks:** Base group members encourage each other to master course content and complete all assignments. Members check to see what assignments each member has and what help they need to complete them. The group discusses assignments, answers any questions about assignments, provides information about what a member missed, and plans, reviews, and edits papers. Members can prepare each other to take tests and go over the questions missed afterwards. Members can share their areas of expertise (such as art or computers) with each other. Above all, members monitor each other's academic progress and make sure all members are achieving.
2. **Personal support tasks:** Base group members listen sympathetically when a member has problems with parents or friends, have general discussions about life, give each other advice about relationships, and help each other solve nonacademic problems. Base groups provide interpersonal relationships that personalize the course.
3. **Routine tasks:** The base group provides a structure for managing course procedures such as attendance and homework.
4. **Assessment and evaluation tasks:** The base group provides a structure for assessing and evaluating student academic learning. Many of the more complex and important assessment procedures can best be used in the context of cooperative learning groups.

Base groups focus the power of long-term relationships on supporting academic progress, motivating academic effort, creating positive attitudes toward learning, increasing retention and graduation rates, and providing the caring and commitment necessary for a full and complete college experience.

Forming Base Groups

Group Size	Four (or three)
Assigning Students	Random Assignment To Ensure Heterogeneity
Arranging Room	Permanent Place For Each Group To Meet
Preparing Materials	Standard Forms Students Use Each Meeting; Group File Folders
Assigning Roles	Runner, Explainer, Accuracy Checker, Encourager

Base Group Agendas

Opening Tasks	Closing Tasks
Greeting And Welcome	Review And Clarify Assignments

Relationship And Group Building Task	Discuss What Was Learned
Check Homework	Discuss Applications Of Learning
Review Progress: Ongoing Assignments	Celebrate Members' Hard Work

Base Groups

Types	Functions	Nature
Class (Meet At The Beginning And Ending Of Each Session Or Week)	Provide Academic Support To Members	Heterogeneous in Membership
School (Meet At The Beginning And Ending Of Each Day Or Week)	Provide Personal Support To Members	Meet Regularly (Daily, Bi-Weekly)
	Manage Class Routines And Administrative Requirements	Last For Duration Of Class, Year, Or Until Graduation
	Personalize Class And College Experience	Ensure All Members Are Making Good Academic Progress

Base Group Meetings

When: Base groups meet at the beginning and end of each class session.

Opening Tasks: Ask and answer two or more of the following questions:

1. How are you today? What is the best thing that has happened to you since the last class session?
2. Are you prepared for this class session?
3. Did you do your homework? Is there anything you do not understand?
4. What have you read, thought about, or done relevant to this course since the last class session?
5. May I read and edit your advanced preparation paper? Will you read and edit mine?

Closing Task: Answer the following questions.

1. Do you understand the assignment? What help do you need to complete it?
2. What are three things you learned in today's class session?
3. How will you use/apply what you have learned?

Celebrate the hard work and learning of group members.

Cooperative: One set of answers from the group, everyone must agree, and everyone must be able to explain.

Individual Accountability: One member of your group will be selected randomly to present your group's answers. The next class session group members will ask you if you have followed through on your assignments and plans.

Expected Behaviors: Active participating, encouraging, summarizing, and synthesizing.

Intergroup Cooperation: Whenever it is helpful, check procedures, answers, and strategies with another group. When you are finished, compare your answers with those of another group and discuss.

Integrated Use of Cooperative Learning

Structuring cooperative learning in classrooms involves integrating the use of the three types of cooperative learning groups. Each course may have a mixture of cooperative formal, informal, and base groups. Given below are two examples of how the different ways of using cooperative learning may be used.

Integrated Use For 50 Minute Session

Step	Activity	Time
1	Welcome And Opening Base Group Meeting	10
2	Choice 1: Direct Teaching, Informal Cooperative Learning	35
3	Choice 2: Work In Formal Cooperative Learning Groups	35
4	Choice 3: Direct Teaching, Formal Coop Learning Groups	35
5	Choice 4: Academic Controversy	35
6	Closing Base Group Meeting	5

Weekly Schedule for 50 Minute Class Sessions

Session 1		Session 2		Session 3	
Time	Activity	Time	Activity	Time	Activity
15	Base Group Meeting	5	Base Group Meeting	5	Base Group Meeting
30	Lecture With Informal CL	35	Formal CL Groups Work On Assignment Or Controversy	15	Formal CL Groups Work On Assignment
5	Base Group Meeting	5	Base Group Meeting	10	Lecture With Informal CL
				15	Base Group Meeting

Integrated Use for 90 Minute Session

Step	Activity	Time
1	Opening Base Group Meeting	10
2	Direct Teaching With Informal Cooperative Learning	25
3	Work On Assignment In Formal Cooperative Learning	40
4	Direct Teaching With Informal Cooperative Learning	10
5	Closing Base Group Meeting	5

Integrated Use of All Types of Cooperative Learning

Task: Plan a day (week) with cooperative learning being used 100 percent of the time. The objective is to provide an overall gestalt as to how the four different types of cooperative learning and a wide variety of the lesson structures may be used in an integrated way.

Cooperation: Find a partner who teaches the same grade level and subject area as you do. Develop one plan for the two of you, both of you must agree that the plan will work, and both of you must be able to implement the plan.

Individual Accountability: Each person will have to present the plan to a member of another group.

Expected Behaviors: Explaining, listening, synthesizing by all members.

Intergroup Cooperation: Whenever it is helpful, check procedures and plans with other groups.

Note: Now that it has been established that cooperative learning may be used 100 percent of the day, the issue of the supplemental use of competitive and individualistic learning becomes relevant. The next chapter focuses on that issue.

Resources

Books

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CASE WRITING

Guidelines for Case Writing

Introduction to Case Writing

Types of Cases

Values of Cases

Activities in the Writing Process

Planning 1) identify the purpose of the case writing task

- 2) identify the learners
 - 3) decide what information should be put into a case.
- Organizing
- 1. Structuring in a narrative style
 - 2. Presenting the nature of the complexity of case problem
- Drafting
- (1) Developing ideas
 - What is the central idea of the case?
 - How should the central idea of the case be supported?
- Revising
- (1) Identifying and judging the writing elements in the case:
 - What are the major case components?
 - What are the criteria to evaluate the case?

GUIDELINES FOR CASE WRITING

Cases are effective instructional tools. Cases, like the telling of a story, reflect problem situations real life and create an authentic learning environment for students. When students engage with cases, learning takes place: they analyze, synthesize and apply knowledge; they also perform evaluation, reasoning, and problem solving. The growing interest in using cases in instruction indicates a need for the development of new cases. However, opinions about what a good case should be like vary. The following is an integrated version of guidelines for case writing from three major sources (Abel, 1997; Kashani, 1995; Leenders & Erskine, 1989):

- **A case should appear authentic and realistic.** The case must develop the situation in real life terms. Reality must be brought into the case. Use as much factual information as possible. In the case, quotes, exhibits and pictures can be included to add realism and life to the case. The problem scenario in the case should be relevant to the real world so that students can experience and share the snapshot of reality.

- **Use an efficient and basic case structure in writing.** First, open up the case with the broadest questions, and then face the specific situation. Close with a full development of the specific issues. The presentation of a case should be primarily in a narrative style, which is a story-telling format that gives details about actions and persons involved in a problem situation.

- **There must be a fit of the case with students' educational needs, and the needs in practice.** The topics and content of the case should be appropriate and important to the particular students in which the case is used. Moreover, case ideas should be relevant to the learning objectives.

- **A case should not propound theories, but rather pose complex, controversial issues.** There are no simple or clearly bounded issues. The controversy of a case can entail debate or contest. It creates learning at many levels – not only substantive learning, but learning also with respect to communication and persuading others. The relationship between issues and the theories should be dealt with through the discussion or instruction.

- **There should be sufficient background information to allow students to tackle the issue(s).** Include not only the events that happened, but also how the people involved perceive them. There should be enough description in the prose of the case itself for students to be able to situate the case problem, understand the various issues that bear on the problem, and identify themselves with the decision-maker's position. Also, good cases need descriptions of the people involved since understanding an individual's predisposition, position, and values, is an important part of the decision making.

- **Write the case in a well-organized structure and in clear language.** A case should be easy to read or access. Make sure that you prepare an outline of the case and use it to organize your materials. Also ensure the clarity and refinement of your presentation of the case.

Introduction to Case Writing

Case writing may be referred to the full process of case development from the decision to use a case to release of the case to its use in class. The entire sequence of steps of the process is set forth in Figure 1. However, the suggested activities for case writing that follow have been established to assist instructors or case writers in organizing and presenting information in the case format. The focus is on the writing process.

Step 1: Case Origin

Identify the needs

Step 2: Establishing the needs

The search for a specific issue ideas and individuals or organizations that might supply the case information

Step 3: Initial Contact

The establishment of access to material on the case subject

Step 4: Data Collection

The gathering of the relevant information for the case

Step 5: The Writing Process

The organization and the presentation of the data and information

Step 6: Release

The obtaining of permission from the appropriate individuals to use the case for educational purposes.

*Figure 1: The Case Writing Process
Adopted from Leenders & Erskine (1989)*

Types of Cases

Before we take up the specific activities involved in the writing process, let's think about some fundamental questions, such as what a case is and what the educational functions in the use of cases are. Usually cases describe particular situations in which people are engaged in complex issues and are forced to take actions in a dilemma. Cases are often used in problem-based learning, in which students are placed in a problem situation and are encouraged to take the role of problem solvers. In this instance, cases are action provoking; cases are designed to present a problem that places students to be in the shoes of a relevant decision-maker in that particular situation for analysis and action recommendations.

In some occasions, cases are designed to provide different aspects that are related to the problem confronted. The cases are used as references. Often this type of case does not only describe a problem situation but also include the chosen solution and the outcome of the solution. Students review those cases and reason about how and why a solution succeeds or

fails. Through this reasoning process, students obtain a deeper understanding of all the relevant factors in a particular problem situation.

Values of Cases

Cases put students in an active learning mode. In other words, cases invite students to do things and to think about the things they are doing. In effect, cases present students with opportunities to analyze and solve relevant real-world practical problems. Cases challenge students to test what they learn through practice instead of merely testing their memory.

Cases are thus useful in instruction that involves high-order thinking such as problem solving and interpretation. Moreover, cases promote transfer. With their active learning and their engagement in solving problems in the studies of the cases, students are better able to apply what they learn to a similar problem situation in the real world.

Activities in the Writing Process

Writing cases is a challenging task, but rewarding as well. It involves complex and reflective endeavors as well as a creative experience. A case writer has to analyze, evaluate, interpret, and synthesize information and ideas. In fact, writing cases enriches one's teaching as well as research. The writing process comprises four major activities: planning, organizing, drafting, and revising.

Planning

Planning is the establishment of a scheme that lays out the important actions and the essential elements in writing a case. In order to do that, a case writer needs to (1) identify the purpose of the case writing task, (2) identify the learners, and (3) decide what information should be put into a case. An effective way to carry out the process is to ask yourself questions for each action you take.

(1) Identifying the purpose of the case writing task: In an educational setting, the function of the case is instructional. Therefore, the questions pertain to what the students are supposed to learn with the case and what context this particular case is used in your teaching.

- What are the learning objectives for the case?

Learning objectives specify what students are expected to know and what they are expected to be able to do, value, or feel at the completion of an instructional segment (Nitko, 1996). That is to say, you have to think about or list the learning issues you would like students to engage in while studying the case, and the learning outcomes that students should reach after completing work on the case. Eventually, the learning objectives help you determine the content of the case in terms of concepts, rules and principles needed in studying the case.

- How is the case used in terms of the instructional sequence?

A case can be incorporated into the curriculum in different ways. It can be presented at the beginning of the instruction to elicit students' attention. The problem scenario presented in the case functions as a stimulus to motivate students to engage learning. A case can also act as an anchor that supports the learning of the content or skills of the subject. For example, some New Pathway courses in Harvard Medical School plan cases and other exercises around a weekly theme that integrates bioscience and clinical learning issues.

The instructor can ask students to read and analyze the case before coming to class. Then in class, lectures and discussions can revolve the concepts, rules and principles that are embedded in the problem situation. Another way is to present the case in class and to employ a role-play activity to involve students in the problem solving process.

A case can be used as an example that illustrates the ideas that have been taught in class or as another instance that represents different aspects of the problem situation that students encounter in the case studies. For example, in business course, the instructor can give a series of cases that deal with a common theme about management but display different situations, strategies and behaviors from different perspectives, such as a company owner, general manager or employees. These cases are useful for adding breadth and depth to the instruction.

The instructor also can use the case to assess students' learning. After a period of study, students are given a case and are asked to write answers to questions about the case. In general, cases may be coordinated with lectures and other class activities; or it may stand-alone. By examining how you want the case to support your teaching and your students' learning, you are able to decide what your case should do and how you should write your case.

(2) Identifying the learners: Like any kind of writing, if you want your readers to understand the information and ideas you are trying to convey, you have to search for the common ground you and your readers share, and exploit this common ground in your writing. In this instance, the readers are the students.

- How much do students know about the subject?

An effective case should make students interested in and motivate them to acquire a deeper understanding of the concepts and rules that have been taught or are going to be learned. Awareness of the level of entry skills of students is helpful to determine what learning issues should be pursued in the case and to detect the differences between the learning objectives and the prior knowledge of students have in the subject matter. The differences help to decide what information is necessary to be put in the case and what other teaching materials should be supplemented to the case so that students can empower themselves as problem solvers. Also the academic background of students helps to determine the tone of the case. Word-choice and the extent of explanatory detail contribute to the quality and character of this tone.

- What are the functions of students in the case study?

Usually students in a case study implicitly assume the roles of the decision-makers in the case. A case developed for role-playing is presented somewhat differently from the one designed to provoke discussions among students. Both have rich descriptions of the problem issues in the case and enable the discovery of concepts, principles or rules to be learned. Basically, a case involving role-playing may require the case writer to embed more detailed information essential for the students, such as the positions and the perceptions of the people involved, to make inferences for their decision-making. Sometimes, the case writer also needs to provide other external resources for students to search for the information in order to work out the issue or problem they confront in the case. On the other hand, a case for discussion may present straightforward and comprehensive information about the context in which the problem arises, the chosen solution and its consequences.

(3) Deciding what information should be put into the case: The question of how to obtain the information should be considered early in your planning because the availability of information surely influences your choice and quality of content. Moreover, the components of a case also determine what information is needed.

- Where is the source of the materials?

Every writing task requires research. After you identify the case issues, you have to start looking for materials that make the case real and actual. The materials may come from different sources. You might draw the case materials from the reflections on your own personal experience, from stories that you have heard from friends or colleagues, or from articles and publications. The materials also can be obtained from interviews with experts on the subject matter that you are dealing with, or with the personnel in a particular organization that you are interested in and that is related to your case issues.

- What makes a case?

An effective case gives students a learning experience to engage real-world problem(s). Therefore, the major element of the case resides in the authenticity of the context where the problem is situated and the problem itself. From this standpoint, a case should at least consist of a description of the setting (time and place), the characters (personality and responsibility), and a sequence of events that are present in the problem or decision-making situation. There should be information available and true enough in the case that will help students to become involved in this learning experience. For example, a clinical case for medical students usually has to do with a patient's health problem. To enrich the reality in the case, there should be relevant materials, such as records of physical examinations (X-rays and scans), and the dialogues between the patient and the doctor.

Organizing

Organizing is the arrangement of ideas that support the purpose of the case. In this part of the case-writing process, you tackle the problem of how to present case materials. The major concerns here are the narrative structure and the presentation of the nature of the complexity of the issues in the case. Typically, cases are presented in a narrative format, which is desirable because of the belief that a story provokes the reader to actively engage the information. Also, cases are primarily problem based in nature. Cases are mostly governed by a problem scenario, which is more open-ended and controversial, and therefore brings out diverse opinions and multiple solutions.

(1) Structuring in a narrative style: Cases, owing to their resemblance to lifelike stories, are richer than plain presentations of concepts, rules and principles to be learned. Students are motivated more to get involved into the situation. Cases, situated in a problem context, are also more easily for students to recall and thus transfer to a new problem situation. All these make the use of case effective in instruction.

- What does a narrative consist of?

A narrative is a story of an event. It includes what happened, who was involved, when it happened, why it happened, and how it happened. A case structured in a narrative style lays out a sequence of events, which develops the story. It brings the characters and actions before the eyes, and often, with dialogue, before the ears of students. Therefore, in a narrative, you must

have details of a specific setting, a list of actors with names and descriptions of personalities, a progressive disclosure of actions, and the problems or issues that evolve the case.

- How is a narrative organized?

The usual way to organize a narrative is chronologically, in the order in which events occur. You may organize in order of importance, or start with the setting and time, or the actual event. Sometimes it can be more effective to start with the end of the action, or somewhere in the middle, and then tell the story through a series of flashbacks. No matter how you organize the case, the principle is to make the narrative structure clear by transition and keep students interested and focused on the points that you want to make.

(2) Presenting the nature of the complexity of case problem: Keep in mind that the information to be presented should justify the intention and the purpose of the writing task. An important objective in the use of cases in learning is to enhance students' ability in critical thinking and problem solving. In the case study, students are encouraged to analyze a problem from different perspectives. Beside the extensive analysis, students are also required to apply both values and judgments to reach a final solution or a consensus to a problem.

- How should the case reveal multifaceted phases of a problem? A plot should be implemented in the case. The plot should unfold around an interest- or conflict-arousing issue(s). The plot should provide uncertainty and then draw students into the particulars of the subject matter related to the case and the roles of the actors involved in the case. For example, a case dealing with the welfare policy may well raise controversy about the positive and negative impacts of a new welfare legislation.

- How does the case show different perspectives?

A case writer should reveal the information in a way that the discussion of the case or the suggested solution for the case will draw students into contention of different interpretations, different judgments, different decisions and, consequently, different actions to take. The best way to enhance such effects is to display contrast and comparisons of different opinions by using direct quotations and dialogues.

Drafting

Drafting is putting your ideas and thoughts down on the paper. The activity transforms ideas into concrete words and sentences; however, the focus of the activity lies in developing the ideas rather than on spelling, grammar, or paragraphing. When you start to write, you should know how the case is used in the instruction and what students are going to learn out of the case. In other words, you have to make sure your writing is congruent with the learning issues that organize the study of the case.

(1) Developing ideas

At this moment, an outline of the case is shaped. After the activities of planning and organizing the case, a case writer should have ideas about what to write about in the case and how to present those ideas in the case. Moreover, materials and information for developing the case should also be at hand. Drafting forces to further the ideas and digest the materials and information that have been gathered from the personal experience, the interviews, documents, or other sources.

- What is the central idea of the case?

The central idea of the case emerges during the planning activity of the writing process. It is the controlling idea that provides the focus of the case. In fact, it derives from the learning objectives – what the students should know and do. The attention of the case should focus on learning issues that you want students to explore.

- How should the central idea of the case be supported?

The case is a means of learning. It presents a description of a problem or decision situation where the learning issues are embedded. Thus, the development of the case evolves to support such a description in a way that can lead students to explore the learning issues and engage students in finding and solving problems. The principle is to give sufficient information to help students to situate themselves in the case. While you are writing, you will be deciding what students need to know to understand the case. For example, in the study of international policies, if you want to support a learning issue about establishing diplomatic relationship between two countries, you should consider presenting the facts, explanations and evidences about the current relationship between these two countries and why there is a need to establish the relationship. In the study of lighting design, you may want to give the descriptions of the size of the room, the function of the room, and how the electricity cords are laid out in the room. All of this information helps support the development of the case.

Revising

Revising involves re-reading, evaluating, and making changes to improve the written case. While re-reading, you have to be an objective, critical reader. While evaluating, you need to know what to look for in your case, i.e., you have to identify major case components and judge them with a set of principles or criteria.

(1) Identifying and judging the writing elements in the case:

In this stage, a case writer needs to identify what in the case needs to be improved and how to improve the case.

- What are the major case components?

The elements of the case to be scrutinized include the content of the case, which is evolved from the learning objectives, the problem-based scenario that sets forth the situation to motivate and engage students to learn, and a narrative structure in which ideas and problem issues are organized and presented.

- What are the criteria to evaluate the case? A case writer examines the appropriateness, unity and coherence of organization, and clarity of the presentation of the information in the case. Pay attention to the case elements and ask yourself the following questions to evaluate the case:

- Does the case achieve the learning objectives?
- Are the problem issue(s) presented in the case related to the learning objectives?
- Is the case sufficiently complete, complex and focused?
- Does a case present a situation, problem, or issue?
- Does the case appear to be realistic?
- Are all the constituents of a narrative included in the case, such as a storytelling style, the contextual descriptions of the situation, the portrays of the central characters, the development of a series of events, and an interesting plot evoking different perspectives?
- Are the events and actions in the case sequenced in a logical order?

- Are the events connected with appropriate transitional signals?
- Is the content in the case accurate, relevant, and appropriate in terms of subject matter?
- If there are external resources, are they appropriate?

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Business Case Journal Case Review. Web site: <http://www.socr.org/bcj/bcj.htm> **Role Playing in Social Studies Instruction**

Role-playing and Its Importance for Social Studies Instruction

Educators want to make the learning environment so powerful that students remember what goes on there as well as the information and skills. There are many factors that contribute to the impact of teaching. However, considering all important factors, we should mention that teachers who think about the dramatic effect of activities and of the pacing of the school day are more likely to do high impact teaching. If the way that we teach creates dramatic excitement and sometimes suspense, what we teach will be remembered (Turner, 2004). School experience that is created by using role-playing method in a truly educational way will intellectually and emotionally involve students, commanding both interest and response. If it does not, it will have little or no positive impact on how students learn, think and feel about people, places, and events.

The founder of German classic philosophy Immanuel Kant believed in the virtue of human being and mentioned that person who can imagine himself in the role of other person and can understand him/her is one of high morality. Kant believed that it's great virtue to achieve the level of dialog within the one person, to think about certain problems taking positions of "self" and "others" the same time. For the development of this ability the best pedagogical way is Role-playing, which helps to understand not only "others" but also "Self".

The idea of Social Studies includes the development of skills of democratic communication. Skills that can be experimented only by means of role-playing in the safe environment, where the learner is free of anxiety and knows that h/she has the opportunity to be mistaken.

In developed democratic societies journalists and politicians are prepared to meet the needs of democratic communication. It seems that debating, arguing etc. is very easy for them, but in fact they do lots of trainings, using the method of role-playing. It helps to manage self in critical situations.

Correct usage of role-playing helps

- develop interpersonal communication skills
- value viewpoints and approaches of others, recognize and accept them
- understand how people decisions can influence other people
- learn theoretical material taking positions of people who were the actors in the real life situations
- develop the ability of problem solving and conflict resolution in civilized way.

Besides, the use of role-playing method in Social Studies instruction makes stuff more interesting and for learners creates opportunity to be emotionally engaged. Role-playing indirectly develops learners' basic democratic values such as ability to express self freely, tolerance, participation etc. For example, during the lesson about the responsibility teachers can create a role-play, where students take the positions of authority. By the way it would be better to divide roles in advance, because students need time for reflecting about the role, understanding the responsibility of the position and acting as expected. And such kind of role taking has democratic meaning. If in non-democratic societies there is cult of leaders and ordinary people don't dare to take the positions of leaders, in democratic societies leaders are servants of people, so using role playing method students can judge about their decisions and try to impact them. Role-play helps students to understand that political leaders are people with their all advantages and disadvantages and that it's very difficult to take responsibility of making important decisions. This is also process of educating future leaders who can understand the difficulties of responsibility and yet be able to meet needs of other people. For emotional and motivational maturity of students role-play is crucial.

The dramatic situation that occurs during role-playing has new features for learners every time, because solution comes not from outside, but from inside. It's not a result of anonymous knowledge, but is a result of inner feelings and thoughts. So reflection is critical, every time after completing role-play students need debriefing, reflecting on purpose of the act. The role-play is the challenge for teacher, because there is a huge share of unknown and unexpected for both teacher and students. This requires from teacher creative approach and skill of making safe environment in the classroom. At the same time results of role-play are so obvious, that it's worth to dare. Teachers can use both one-lesson and continuous role-plays. For continuous simulations students can take roles and develop them during a certain period (e.g. minister, director, judge etc.), while they are learning deeper and deeper certain themes (e.g. the role of government, justice etc.).

We can explain the impact of role-playing also using Bruner's theory of human cognition. Jerome Bruner (1966 as cited in Farris (2001). identifies three systems through which human beings represent their experiences for consideration, storage, retrieval, and application. He calls these systems or forms the enactive, the iconic, and the symbolic. In the enactive form knowledge is translated into action, because it is difficult to express in words. Humans represent experience in this form when it is easier to demonstrate, show or act out what they know. In the iconic form, knowledge or understanding is translated into visual or other sensory organizational systems. Pictures, charts, and diagrams are examples of iconic representation of experience. The third form of representation, the symbolic, is the most

sophisticated of the three systems and is the last to develop. It is best represented by both written and spoken language. Social studies knowledge mostly is represented in the third form, but for learning this knowledge it will be more efficient to mix all three forms, because they increase impact of each other and allow students to learn better. Role-playing permits students to make use of all three forms of representation as they express their ideas or understandings of for example, historical events.

Though we haven't mention in the teacher's role section this particular role (see chapter 3), but social studies teachers have to be also kind of stage managers, who is able to create the dramatic atmosphere during instruction. Such teachers provide students with a dramatic vision of history, of culture and of human relationships. They allow them to experience and to become involved in the conflicts and controversies, the personalities and events, etc. They make students aware of the dramatic moments of the past and of the present, the elements of conflict, climax, comedy, and tragedy; suspense and resolution; characters, dialogues and private thoughts. As stage managers teachers can also utilize a number of dramatic techniques that get students involved, provoke curiosity and give reason for research, develop a sense of event sequence, develop skills of oral and written expression, and develop sensitivity to the feelings and ideas of others. The use of role-playing as a teaching approach **makes the social studies come alive** (Turner, 2004). Most importantly, role-playing, simulations and drama can stimulate research and often give purpose and meaning to gathering and studying data.

Through role-playing, students explore places, times and situations that they may not have directly experienced. The dialogue is not scripted, and the teacher sets up the situation for the drama. The students then use their knowledge and experience to develop their characters' response to the circumstances presented. Those circumstances help student understand the role taking situations (Morris, 2001). Students engage in role-playing activities to learn history and to improve their abilities to evaluate evidence and concepts and visualize a future. Such abilities are important qualities in effective citizens. Research examining the effects of role-playing on students' knowledge and attitudes takes at face value the testimonials of students that they enjoyed their engagement in drama and also learned a good deal of social studies (Edwards and Craig, 1990 as cited in Morris, 2001).

Role-playing can make the classroom an exciting place to be, and can help students remember historical and cultural concepts and facts that they would otherwise forget. It can tell about social interactions and develop self-concepts, helping understand others and develop empathy. But sometimes it can become disturbing. So here is very important the way the teacher handles role-play. If role-play is to be effective in social studies, the teacher has to first feel comfortable with it. He or she must be attracted to role-play techniques and feel very positive about his or her potential to make the entire classroom a more exciting and interesting place. Teachers should avoid using techniques that make them feel they are losing control of the classroom. Because role-playing requires high student involvement and sometimes include student planning and student leading in different directions, they may do just that. Teachers also need to feel that what they are doing with role-playing is solid and purposeful. Role-playing cannot be used as a mere time filler or entertainment. It has to have curricular importance and value. The teacher has to feel and has to communicate that effectively to the students. Debriefing sessions are very important and should not be omitted.

Role-playing requires preparation. First rule for teacher is: *be prepared*. The teacher has to know what he or she is about, find the right material, plan and structure the role-play activity, and lead the students through planning and rehearsal and up to the dramatic enactment moment. Role-playing only works in a conducive atmosphere, which is open and

experimental. It also offers emotional security so that students feel safe psychologically. To take the kind of personal risks that role-playing demands, students have to be sure that their peers will not be ridiculing or demeaning them for their efforts.

Types of Role-playing

There are many classifications of role-playing. Collecting some of them we can create a table below, which includes almost every type of role-playing techniques.

Classification of Role-playing methods*

Classifying by form	
Imaginary	Performed
Verbal	behavioral
Improvised	scripted
Classifying by content	
Person plays him/herself	Person plays other people's role
Actions are taken from real life	Actions are completely unreal

(Gary jan, I have descriptions of these types and some good examples in Armenian, so I can just add them after translation - SP).

Besides mentioned general types of role-playing there are some complex forms, which are very usable for social studies and are described below.

Simulation games

In the social studies instruction one very popular method of role-playing is simulation gaming. Simulation games recently have become part of our everyday lives also, because fantasy simulations are played out recreationally by young people worldwide and there are many well-known computer games that are simulations. Many popular board games also are simulations, like widely accepted "Monopoly".

Essentially, simulation games are structured decision making activities in which students assume roles and then solve problems. Participants are given problem scenarios and additional information related to the problem and their roles. Their job is to come to the decision points in the game and then make the best choice among the options available. Decisions and actions of students playing the games are limited by sets of restrictive rules. These rules make simulations more patterned than other role-play activities. The decisions often result in consequences, so students can reconstruct also these situations. The problem scenario itself, which serves as the beginning point and the heart of the games, may be based on some very real current or historical situation or on a hypothetical one.

*See **B. Joyce, M. Weil**, Models of Teaching, 5th edition, **Shaw, E. Malcolm, Corsini, J. Raymond etc.** Role playing: A practical manual for group facilitators, San Diego, 1980, **J. E. Eitington**, The winning Trainer, Houston, Texas, 1996.

Simulation games used in school as a teaching technique should be more than just for fun. Both the choice of the games and the way the gaming activities are constructed is critical. The game should serve an important curricular purpose: when students play these games they should be learning something. The games should help them understand better. Once that is the prime consideration, other concerns follow logically. The students ought to be aware of and understand what they are doing. The game should be one that students truly enjoy and they will immerse themselves in the issues and the content. The best games provoke questions, reading and research.

During last decade in Armenia widely has been used simulation of Business Companies for Applied Economic classes (9th grade) implemented by Junior Achievement of Armenia. Really it helps students to learn difficult economical concepts very easily and with pleasure. Also deciding what to produce, producing, marketing and trying to sell learners feel all difficulties of creating new things in economical world. They begin to think in a new way and avoid doing rapid conclusions.

The strength of simulation games is that they generate intellectual engagement, involvement and interest. Students become impassioned about the games. That very quality also means that simulation games can really stimulate students to do some meaningful research: feel need and purpose of doing it. The major emphasis in simulation games on problem solving and decision-making is another important benefit. Simulations offer perhaps the nest vehicle available for practicing problem solving: this allows students to practice their problem solving skills in relative safe environment of role-playing. Carefully conducted debriefing sessions can really strengthen the development of problem solving. Such sessions are both analytic and reflective.

But simulation gaming also has limitations that can't be ignored. Such games can be very time consuming in the classroom. They often take time away that could be spent in acquiring factual knowledge. For the teacher whose concern is more slanted to how many content students learn, this does pose a distinctive disadvantage. Simulation games also may require a good deal of preparation time on the part of the teacher. Simulations also can be very competitive for students, and thus in some games may also develop and encourage undesirable behavior. So teachers should be attentive to set rules with students for correct behavior and keeping game environment safe. Game debriefing has to include a definite and convincing closing down of all phases and aspects of roles that students have taken during the game playtime.

Mock trials

The activity of the courtroom offers many possibilities for the role-playing. Because the justice system is so integrally important to understanding democracy and the democratic process, various kinds of dramatic activities can be built around the legal process. This can be useful in helping students understand the constitution and the legal system as well as the various conflicts and controversies that have been and continue to be important issues. Understanding the legal system seems to be essential for understanding democratic society with its self keeping of justice and developing the knowledge and attitudes needed to participate. Most people will be involved in the legal system several times in their lives, and the more students learn about the law and the courts and how they operate, the better prepared they will be to deal with these legal encounters throughout life (Turner, 2004).

By far the most used role-play activity related to the legal process is the mock trial. Mock trials enable students to reexamine history and to look at questions of right and wrong as they relate to the law and the legal system. Mock trials can take different forms and be developed with varying thoroughness and detail depending on such factors as teaching

purpose, the ability level of the students, and the time available. According to Turner, (2004) there are many forms of mock trials.

1. **Re-creation of real trials from the past:** attempt to enact the trial as it took place. The more thoroughly we research it and the more preparation we do, the more completely this can be done. Archives and printed materials can help (for example, the are materials about trial of Tehleryan, that can be examined and re-constructed).

2. **Role-playing trials from the past with open verdicts:** this type of mock trial is similar to the first in all, but one difference: the verdict can be changed. In fact we want to see if a jury of students is going to come to the same decision that was reached at the original trial. When comparisons are made, the question is always going to be why the verdict was the same or different.

3. **Hypothetical trials of historical and contemporary figures who have never stood trial:** with this type of trial, the students' sense of justice and fairness or even their natural curiosity is served, as well as their biases. Trials of historical characters like Vasak Sjun, Israjel Ori etc. raise the question about historical circumstances and difficulty to decide which way is the best for nation. Students also can try with contemporary political figures.

4. **Trials related to current controversies and issues:** the cases come right out of the newspapers and news broadcasts, and relatives and friends have information and opinions. The issues of current events become relevant and important to students as they try to make their own case.

5. **Reenactment of trials suggested in fictional books:** trials are popular subject in fiction. Having students develop the detail to enact one of these trials can help comprehension and test their creativity. For example, in Hrant Matevossians "We and our mountains" heroes imagine how they will face the trial process. Teacher can suggest students to imagine that trial really happened and to try re-creating the trial and coming to a verdict. Doing this learners will better understand historical situation with its logic.

6. **Fantasy trials of story and book characters:** moral themes are almost universal in fiction, so students can put any character that they are familiar with in a trial process. It's easy, funny and the same time raises moral problems and stimulates students to think about them. For example, they can judge heroes of Shahan Tatikyan's novel "Cherry-tree".

7. **Creation of a new crime scenario and then role-playing the trial:** this is a totally creative experience in which students create a crime, a victim, witnesses and clues, and an accused perpetrator of the crime. Here process is from theoretical material to its application. If students learn about private property they can create crimes related with ownership and so on. This helps better understand issues related with certain problem. But this also requires a teacher with broad knowledge and research skills. If students have created a crime that both students and teacher don't know how to judge, they can continue investigating how legal system responses to such crimes.

8. **Development of a classroom court to try discipline offenders:** several systems, ranging from very simple to very elaborate, may be used to put members of the class on trial for breaking the classroom rules. The major benefit of the exercise is that students develop clearer, more meaningful ideas about the relationship of punishment to crime, justice, moral and behavioral values etc. Teachers can use this method for classroom management purposes.

Reader's theatre

Reader's theatre, suggested by Turner (2004), involves turning a story that is written in narrative form into a play. A group of students read the story and then plan together how to alter it so that it can be read as a play. The focus is on drama planning process. The students have to think out how they can change the way the story is told. They have to develop a thorough understanding of the characters; a feel for the setting; and a mental map of the purpose, themes, and the plot line or sequence. They literally rewrite the story, putting in dialogue to cover narrative passages. They are made to think about what character would be most likely to relate the information and how it can be fitted in as conversation or as monologue. Of course, one of the natural tendencies is to fall back on the device of a narrator, but ideally the use of this voice should be prohibited altogether or kept at a minimum.

Because the focus of dialogue is human interaction and monologue is really a way of revealing inner thoughts, dreams, and concerns, this method has a lot to offer to the social studies. Of course, some stories are better suited than others. Stories that place a lot of emphasis on character, those that are written in the first person, and those that are already rich in dialogue usually take less adaptation. For social studies content purposes, folk tales, biographical episodes, historical fiction, and stories that emphasize culture and human relationships are most useful.

After the story is planned and usually rewritten, the students can try running it several times. This can allow different people to express themselves in the roles and allow rewriting and rethinking different parts of the story.

Pantomimes

Students like this technique, because it helps at the same time to be relaxed and to learn or to try explaining some concepts, notions or even historical figures or fiction heroes without words. This technique can have many variants. One very common variant is: class divides into two groups. Each group secretly decides the concept or historical figure to be described without any verbal means and suggest to one representative from other group to explain group mates the given concept. If group understands, it wins. Groups in turn suggest each other concepts and show them only using Pantomimes. This is competitive game, but it is full of excitement and helps to be more attentive with non-verbal means of explanation. It develops logic and helps shy students to be more engaged. Also for better performing in game students become more attentive to learn new concepts, to examine events, characters, etc.

Particular games can be general (explaining anything) or with stated topic (for example, only concepts of economics, or civics, or only heroes from Armenian literature, world literature etc.). During cultural studies students can be suggested even to show art works: paintings, sculptures, dances etc. After such games they become more attentive with details of art works and their meanings.

After role-playing: reflecting or debriefing

Role-playing method is very powerful during the action, but it is incomplete without a good session, which is designed to help students reflect on their learning. This process is called debriefing and consists of an oral discussion session in which students and teacher engage in a question and answer with purpose to reveal everything that intended to be mastered. Many researchers stress the need of post-game discussion that is necessary for maximum effectiveness of any role-playing method (Gillespie, 1973 as cited in Petranek, Corey, Black, 1992). Many of role-playing games are not self-teaching and need a good debriefing session to assist students in reflecting on their behavior and purpose of the simulation or other role-playing technique. Games should not be treated as breaks from the classroom routine but rather as an integral part with specific debriefing objectives. And if participants through debriefing sessions learn to reflect on the games they also master reflecting skills for every situation in the real life.

Teacher's role during the debriefing is fairly different from the role of lecturer. The debriefer sets the tone by being open and accepting new ideas. In debriefing the teacher is a facilitator and encourages all to offer opinions. This might be difficult to offer if a teacher's lecturing style dominates passive students. Debriefing should lead without being overbearing and keeping time and asking probing questions. Debriefing encourages students to see patterns of behavior and proposes associations from the role-playing to the real world. As stated Petranek, Corey, and Black (1992) the debriefer's role is a two-way street instead of the one-way street of lecturing.

For teachers that want to master debriefer's role Hankinson (1987 as cited in Petranek, Corey, Black, 1992) and Hsu (1989 as cited in Petranek, Corey, Black, 1992) suggest the following structure for debriefing session. As they think oral debriefing revolves around the four *Es*: *events, emotions, empathy and explanations*. A good way to initiate a conversation about the simulation is to ask the participants to describe the *events* that happened to them. The debriefer allows as many people to speak as want to speak. If the debriefer is aware of a particular interaction that was meaningful, he or she calls on these people to elaborate. The problem is to move the conversation in analytical direction without being domineering.

After the *events* are examined, the debriefer moves the conversation to the second *E*, the *emotions* around these *events*. He/she is gentle in drawing out feelings. If students find it difficult to verbalize their *feelings*, the debriefer offers many possible *emotions* as a starting point. The role of the debriefer is as a facilitator who creates a social atmosphere where all *emotions* and ideas are respected. Even when some harsh *emotions* are discussed, the debriefer acknowledges them and thanks the person for his/her honesty.

With the *events and emotions* from many different students there is abundance of information in the air. To help students learn from this situation, the debriefer stresses the third *E*, which is to *empathize* and see the simulation from other's viewpoints. He/she encourages participants to stand "in another's shoes" and to see world as they see it. The debriefer demonstrates that two contrasting perspectives to the same situation are both valid. Gaining insights into different viewpoints is crucial in role-playing learning.

The final *E* of debriefing is *explanation or analysis* of role-playing. These explanations happen in several different ways. The debriefer encourages participants to explain their motives behind some action or to explain the reasons for certain emotions. From the immediate situation the conversation is advanced to the main purpose of the role-playing activity. Students discuss their interpretation of the purpose of particular role-playing. Connections are made from the role-playing to the real world, and the similarities and dissimilarities are discussed. Participants speculate if people in real life situations make these

same decisions. Finally academic theories are applied to the actions and emotions. Students *explain* the theories and then logically connect them to the role-playing.

So, we see the importance of valid debriefing session not only for particular purposes of learning planned material but also for developing students' ability of self-reflection and making connections between experience and cognition.

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Portfolio as a Tool Both for Instruction and Assessment

Having its beginning from artistic portfolios of painters, architects, etc. recently portfolio is widely accepted as a tool for assessment*. Interest in the use of portfolios in education developed in the 1970s and 1980s with the renewal of the interest in the teaching of writing (Calkins, 1986 as cited in Ward and Murray-Ward, 1999). But during further development educators understood that the best assessment is the one integrated into instruction, so actually they try to make assessment tools also tools for instruction. Portfolio here is a very helpful, because it doesn't need special efforts to do this as creation and maintenance of portfolio is really a process of authentic learning. The term authentic here shows that the basic premise of the approach is that we need to look at all types of real work that students can do in order to learn and to see their accomplishments and potential (Turner, 2004). Even sometimes it's difficult to say which component is prevailing in certain portfolios: assessment or instruction. There can be portfolios that even lack assessment component but still meet their purpose, as it was instructional. For example, different generations of students can in turn fulfill the same portfolio devoted to famous writer or historical significant event. Here, sometimes it's not important how much new material brought certain student or class, but it's important that students study existed materials, value their importance to be included in such a portfolio and decide which other new materials they should add for enhancement of portfolio. They should do research and invent where and how they can get needed materials. Doing all of this they learn about a writer or event and learn scrupulously as they need to judge about further actions. This is process of authentic learning, learning by making a useful device - portfolio, which students know will be useful also for next generations of students. If it's possible such portfolios can be even school one-room or corner museums. Social studies teachers can decide how many such portfolios they need to have in the school. It can be a portfolio about the history and present days of their town/village; it can be devoted of world issues of human development, etc. As stated Cole et al. (1997), educators must take steps to incorporate instruction in the development of portfolio, so that all students will have equal access to the potential benefits.

Pierce and O'Malley (1992 as cited in Cole et al., 1997) define the portfolio as the purposeful and systematic collection of student work that reflects accomplishment relative to specific instructional goals. We all agree that portfolios can be in wide variations: paper

* See chapter on Assessment of this handbook. Also now there are many books in Armenian, where portfolio is discussed. See handbooks of IREX, Civic Education teacher's manual, Manual for in-service training (UNESCO), etc. But this time stress is on instructional value of portfolios.

binders, art works, and electronic, virtual portfolios, school museums, albums, exhibitions etc. These portfolios can meet different purposes, evaluative and instructional. Assessment portfolios are used to collect data systematically for making educational decisions. Instructional portfolios are designed to provide students and teachers with information related to current, ongoing instruction. Such portfolios can be used to motivate students in relation to goals, facilitate discussions between student and teachers, promote student reflection, and provide direction for instruction. The purpose of the instructional portfolio is as a tool used by the teacher and the students to direct the instruction for the students (Farris, 2001). As stated Cole et al (1997) in the US now different states (e.g. Michigan) require school districts to maintain portfolios for all high school students until graduation. It means that only formal standardized testing system is not enough for judging about student achievements.

The portfolio requires, actually creates situations, in which students must think about their own thinking, allowing them to monitor their progress, and through self-evaluation helps them take charge of their learning and encourage ownership, pride and self-esteem. Such a tool fosters wide-awake, careful, and thoughtful habits of thinking (Kish et al., 1997).

Developing a Purposeful Portfolio

Although there are considerable variations in the ways in which portfolios are developed, most share certain common features. Salvia and Ysseldyke (1995 as cited in Cole et al, 1997) suggest that a portfolio should:

- Focus on valued outcomes, processes and strategies
- Mirror real world work
- Use collaboration among students and between students and teachers
- Use multiple dimensions for evaluating students' work
- Encourage student reflection.

Before portfolio development for instructional purposes it's very important to have clearly defined rationale or purpose for developing the portfolio. For example, a student's rationale for developing a portfolio might be "I want to be a better writer". This helps students to be carers of their learning, to determine what they want to achieve and find ways how they can do it. As

a result of this process students become responsible for their own learning. Filling the portfolio with evidences of the work done students also learn how to evaluate themselves.

The goals and objectives of the portfolio also must be identified. For a writing portfolio such goals might include “to write more complex sentences” or “ to create better transitions between thoughts”. Goals and objectives are critical to the development of a portfolio to keep it from becoming an unfocused collection of odds and ends.

If portfolio serves also for assessment, setting standards or criteria is another critical component. Standards and criteria for assessment should determine how well the goals and objectives of portfolio have been met.

Paulson and Paulson (1991, as cited in Cole et al, 1997) also suggest careful consideration of the portfolio’s contents. All materials placed in the portfolio should indicate the students’ level of achievement in relation to the goals and objectives of the portfolio. These materials may include classroom or home assignments, final drafts, and products specifically developed for the portfolio.

When the purpose of the portfolio is instruction (Cole et al., 1997), the materials included may be those that show progress with each successive revision or additional product. The resulting evidence of growth may have a major impact on student motivation. Students and their teachers or students and their parents can conference about what has been learned and what, the next goal should be. Such evaluation processes can result in students seeing the link between assessment and instruction.

Student involvement is essential in each stage of the process. When students themselves determine the purpose of a learning experience, their sense of self-efficacy, academic achievement, motivation, and intrinsic interest in the subject matter is enhanced. In addition, being involved in the problem solving and decision making processes which occur throughout the development of the portfolio allows students to utilize cognitive strategies and higher-order thinking skills to make informed judgments about goals, standards and contents. Being aware of each of the facets of the portfolio, including how it will be evaluated, also encourages students to employ metacognitive strategies to monitor their own performance and progress (Paulson and Paulson, 1991, as cited in Cole et al., 1997).

Advocates for portfolio assessment/instruction indicate that portfolios provide a direct measure of students performance and allow students the opportunity to create “real-world” products, rather than merely selecting responses on multiple-choice tests, thus giving

teachers, students, and parents a more complete picture of students' abilities in relation to the classroom curriculum.

Portfolio assessment/instruction can be used as a means to increase students-teacher communication as teachers and students discuss and reflect on current learning and future goals. Such dialogs help to develop the direction of classroom instruction and increase students' self-efficacy.

As stated Herman and Winters (1994, as cited in Cole et al., 1997) teachers need training in order to develop portfolios that effectively link assessment and instruction.

Managing Portfolios

Managing portfolios is not an easy task; job should not fall entirely on teacher. Teacher is not a collector of work samples for portfolios, but a coordinator, that helps students to collect their own portfolios. Portfolios can be individual and group, so teacher in the first case can help every student privately, in the second case can meet with the group and conference with them. By discussing with the students the purposes and the practices of keeping portfolios, much of the responsibility for completing the portfolio will be placed where it belongs-in their hands, the hands of portfolio owners (De Fina, 1992).

Whenever students feel involved in an activity, they usually will invest greater energies in doing that task well. The major responsibility for maintaining the portfolio should be given to students. But teachers should be careful with group portfolios for assigning reasonable responsibility for every member of the group.

Teacher will also have to establish a revolving schedule for meeting with individual students, small groups, and the class to review and discuss the portfolios (De Fina, 1992). Individual conferences should be scheduled during different periods when all students mainly engaged in individual silent work (it can be reading or writing periods, working with primary sources etc.) Ideally teacher should create a schedule that allows him/her to meet individually with each student at least once a month. Item placement, evaluation criteria, portfolio organization are all topics that can be addressed in conference sessions.

During conferencing teacher will have repeated opportunities to establish trust and create a safe environment in which decision-making is encouraged. As a result, students will be challenged to shape change for themselves by choosing the form their portfolios will take and by deciding which works best exemplify the needed purpose (for example, their efforts and

strengths, or the essence of problem, etc.). Teachers can encourage students to think about their succeeding process; about their own growth and help them devise appropriate plans for improvement and development.

The conference period, as suggested De Fina (1992), should not be a time to point out students' failures and to advise them that they are "not working up to their potential". Rather, the purpose of assessment is to identify weaknesses and provide suggestions for growth. Showing students the possibilities in their work – rather than focusing on the problems, continues De Fina (1992) – will provide them with an immediate plan of action for making changes.

During the conference period teachers also will have many opportunities to do one-on-one modeling of critical thinking and decision-making, teachers also will have many opportunities to observe students' reasoning through the complex issues of the portfolio.

Another important question is about accessing portfolios. If portfolios are general for all class, or group accessing is not a problem, but with individual portfolios moral issues are very important. The issue of access depends upon the purpose of a portfolio. If someone does not have a definite reason for wanting to examine a portfolio, then he/she really should not be given access to its contents. Good evaluators know what they are looking for, or they have notions of what they think they will find. Students in both cases must be informed of how their portfolios will be used so that they can make judgments about any request by others to review their work.

Certainly, in all cases, owners must have easy access to their own work (De Fina, 1992). Of course, teachers also need to have access to their students' portfolios. But the frequency and purpose of such access should be clearly outlined – and perhaps even negotiated – with them at the onset of compiling the portfolios. If students feel that their teachers have too many rules or are too invasive, they will be less likely to approach the task of compilation enthusiastically.

Students may choose to invite peer review of their portfolios or allow certain sections of their portfolios to be a part of a public domain. Of course, issues of pride and privacy are very important when establishing guidelines for peer review, and sensitivity and respect for fellow students must also be built. Sometimes there is a lot of ground work that must be laid in this area; however, teachers who model positive handling of criticism and interaction rarely have difficulties building a cooperative spirit in the classroom (see also Johnson and Johnson, 1996).

Parental review of the portfolios should also be negotiated and guidelines established from the very beginning. Students will need to know how their parents will be involved in the revision process and how the collected information will be used. They should never have to fear, for example, that they might be grounded because of a “bad” work sample or checklist in their portfolios.

If portfolios are kind of “invention”, students can become teachers for other audiences (other students, teachers, parents) and explain how they find certain materials, how they opened some aspects of a problem, or event, or famous person life that weren’t highlighted before. It is really a process of learning by teaching.

The Seven Steps in Portfolio Usage

In fact, in the section above we already mentioned these steps, but it is more structured and suggested by Popham (1995) to follow these seven steps while dealing with portfolios:

1. Allow students to “own” their portfolios.
2. Negotiate on what kinds of work samples to collect.
3. Collect and store work samples.
4. Negotiate about the criteria by which to evaluate portfolio work samples.
5. Require students to reflect continually on their own portfolio products.
6. Schedule and conduct portfolio conferences.
7. Involve parents in the portfolio assessment process.

Conclusion

Portfolios being widely accepted in education aren’t yet a simple task to fulfill for teachers. Many of them don’t know exactly how to use portfolios as instructional tools. This is natural, because this notion is now in the process of formulation, though our best teachers used portfolios for instruction and even made students to be fully engaged in creation of such instructional device. Here it will be useful to add that portfolios help to instruct (for teacher) and to learn (for students) in two ways: one is when student(s) investigate some certain problems only because they are learning in that process and the second is when students learning at the same time help teachers create alternative sources for instructing certain

themes for next generations. This is especially actual for Armenia, because many textbooks are unfortunately the only source for classroom usage, so if students read historical source and adapt it for classroom usage, such work can be maintained for further instruction. Also because Internet isn't yet really accessible for every student, some of them can find useful materials and make compilations of best materials that will be used for entire classroom.

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Chapter 4

DESIGNING UNITS AND 'LEARNING EVENTS'

In this book we have taken the basic model of Understanding by Design model and adapted it to suit the needs of Armenian realities. We have used the same premises for Backward design that were first introduced in the IREX Middle Level Project, but have refined and extended it. Our model consists of 9 steps. These steps tell the unit planners very concretely what needs to be done. The template starts from general issues, like enduring understandings, learning benchmarks and then goes to more specific issues, like knowledge and skills, rationale. Next steps are the main learning processes – assessment and instruction. And the last steps are adaptations for special needs and reflection. Following these steps educators can create effective units. Template of unit design is given at the end of the chapter.

Although there are many subsections in this chapter our discussion revolves around two critical points. The first is the general planning steps for creating a unit, which were introduced, but not discussed in chapter 1. The second priority relates to the writing of lessons that we call “learning events,” which will be explained below.

Immediately after this last chapter in this handbook the reader will find six units that were developed using the concept and practical aspects of the BD template. In addition to using the template, the authors have endeavored to create units integrating various subjects in logical and appropriate ways. The integration was not *forced*, that is, the units were written to address the “enduring understandings” and targeted assessment performances—the “general know and do’s”—and subject matter content was brought to bear on the topic as appropriate. For example in the unit, *Earthquake Zone*, among the subject areas *naturally integrated* were those on law, geography, and geology and “Earth Sciences.”

How can units be “logically” Integrated?

All the units contained in this book have an overarching structure of concepts and ideas that include enduring understanding, learning benchmarks, tools for assessment, objectives, rationales, principles of selection, periodization, thematic threads, and guidance for development of students' historical, analytical, critical, logical, cause-effect thinking skills. This structure is then integrated with a logically organized body of teaching units, lesson plans, activities,

assessments, and resources. It is inevitable, that integrated curriculum is at the core of the vision of progress education, since in the real world of work one must “integrate” almost every day. In addition, the units’ integration involves every aspect of backward design, from a philosophical perspective to alignment of standards, assessment and instructional strategies. Integrated curriculum - done thoughtfully-can address both accountability and relevance needs. Committed teachers now understand that the only way to cover the standards and provide constructive assessment is to integrate and , especially, to use a backward design template. The examples of this book prove it .

In the second book, we have built on this foundation with practical examples and structures and recommend steps for educators to adapt and create their own integrated curriculum that can meet state standards. We have endeavored to go more deeply into the specific topics contained in these handbooks, adding more and richer examples that are contextual to the Armenian educational setting. The intent of this activity is to introduce students to the meaning of history, geography, economics, anthropology, art, languages, civics and their importance. The students will examine why society how history plays an essential role in our lives as responsible citizens. Through formerly acquired skills of research and inquiry, students will learn new skills of recall, discussion, consideration, collaboration, and investigation. The activity can also serve as an introduction to exploring major eras in history, identify persons demonstrating various degrees of virtue, and examining choices in cause and effect relationships.

The integrated units include integration across the subject areas thoroughly revealed and explored for both the student and the teacher, some further options are offered to go deeper into the topics making the **know/do/be** framework. The goal of teaching is for students to “understand” what is most important to know and to be able to do. Understanding ,according to Wiggins and McTighe, goes beyond student achievement targets, It focuses on students gaining in-depth and broad understanding of an area of study, rather than simply memorizing in order to regurgitate material for a test.

Knowledge is now increasing as a result of the internet and other technological innovations. It is even more important to sort out what is worth knowing. In order to understand

how students have arrived in the place and setting that they are in, it is important to learn about the events and situations that have shaped and influenced our community, society, and human condition. With the help of interdisciplinary classrooms, positive learning environments are created for both teachers and students. From unfolded lesson plans even, one can notice that students' learning is enhanced as the curriculum moves further in the direction of integration. All the subject areas come to merge one into another, overlap and bring maturity to a student by making final decisions i.e., Symbols in our lives, or Human being and Globalization, or/and Develop a well-reasoned hypothesis on causes and effects of conflicts, etc. The threads are creating webs where all the subject areas support to develop better perspectives on expectations, goals, activities and of course, challenges. The units are created keeping in mind that the world within today's classroom is a reflection of the world outside in its doors, that's why they include all the aspects of life: human being with his /her role, business, globalization, disaster zones, symbols and they apply a variety of interdisciplinary strategies to enhance the learning of social studies content for all students at various stages of the learning spectrum.

Given this general review and extended background, the reader is ready to consider unit and "learning event" design.

Designing A Unit – The General Plan

How Do I Begin to Design a Unit?

The entire premise for the "Armenian High School Level Backward Design Curriculum Planning Template" (here-after called the BD Template) is to help curriculum designers at any level think through the priorities for unit planning. (See Figure 4.1 below for a full diagram of the BD template.) Unlike many methods which begin simply with goals, objects, and lessons, this model includes those priorities, but also considers other relevant priorities *before* the writing of the lesson plans (which we call learning events).

Teachers planning a backward design unit need to take the following three steps.

- Plan with the end in mind by first clarifying the learning you seek, that is desired results
- Then think about the evidence needed to certify that students have achieved those desired learnings.

- Finally, plan the means to the end, that is the teaching and learning activities and resources to help students achieve the goals.

The general stages for unit writing were introduced in chapter 1 and are reviewed below:

Stage 1 - To what extent does the design focus on the big ideas of targeted content?

Consider. Are ...

- The targeted understandings enduring and based on big ideas.
- The targeted understandings framed by questions that spark meaningful connections, provoke inquiry and deep thought?
- The essential questions provocative, arguable, and likely to generate inquiry around the central ideas?
- Appropriate goals identified?
- Valid and unit-relevant knowledge and skills identified?

Stage 2 – To what extent do the assessments provide fair, valid, reliable and sufficient measures of the desired results?

Consider. Are ...

- Students asked to exhibit their understanding through authentic performance tasks?
- Appropriate assessment tools used to evaluate student products and performances?
- Students encouraged to self-assess?

Stage 3 - To what extent is the learning plan effective and engaging?

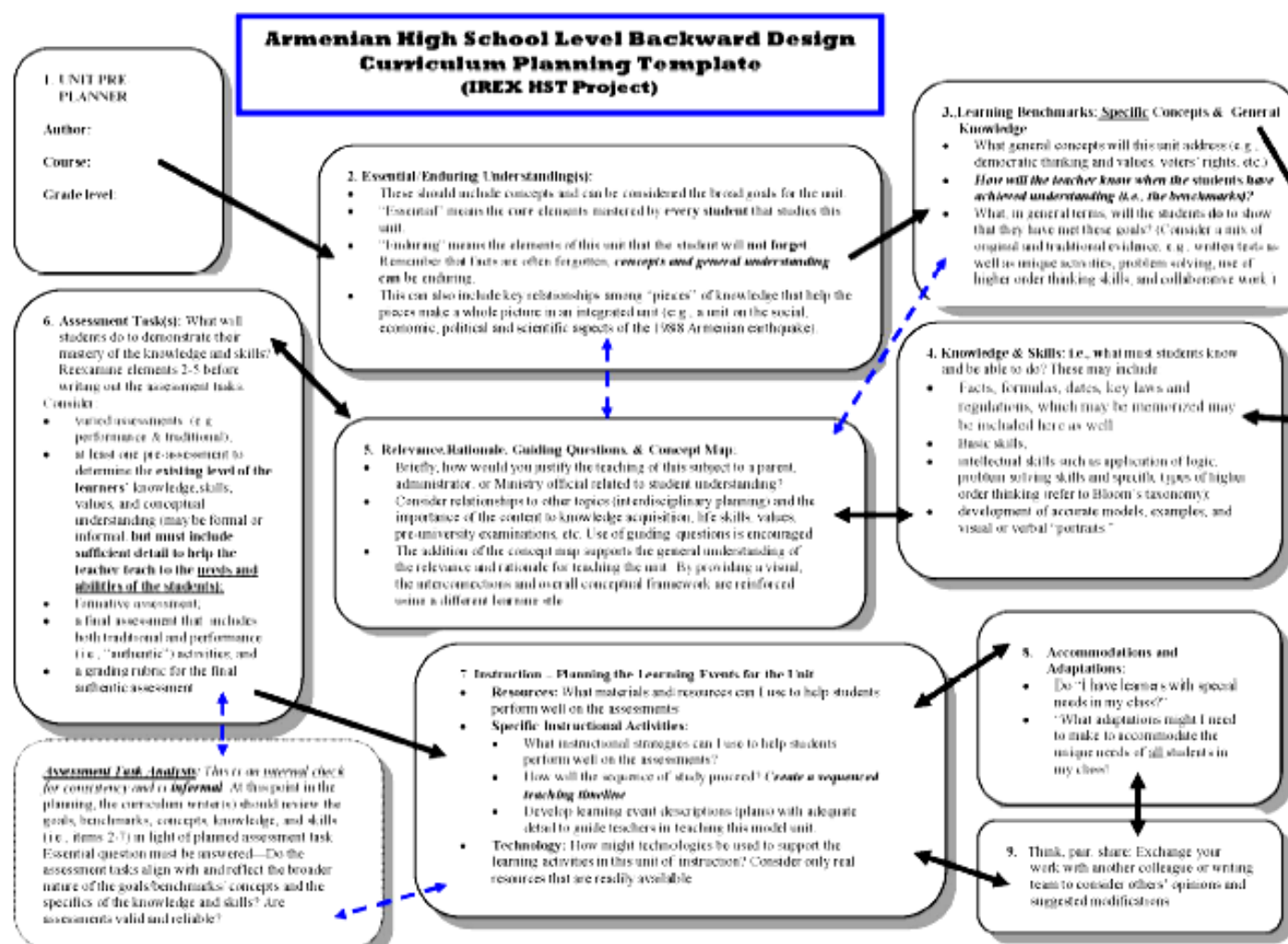
Consider. Will the students ...

- Know where they are going, why the material is important and what is required of them?
- Be hooked – engaged in digging big ideas through inquiry, research, problem solving?
- Have adequate opportunities to explore and experience big ideas?
- Have sufficient opportunities to rethink, revise and refine their work based on timely feedback?
- Have an opportunity to evaluate their work, reflect on their learning and set goals?

Consider. Is the learning plan ...

- Addressing the interests and learning styles of all students?
- Organized in such a way that is maximizing engagement and effectiveness?

Figure 4.1. The Armenian High School Level Backward Design Curriculum Planning Template (BD Template).



Developed summer of 2005 by G. F. Varella & the HST Team, based on the work of Alice Reilly, the BDE Design Team work, Northern Colorado BOCES, 2002, from the ideas found in *Understanding by Design* (Wiggins, G. & McTighe, 1998). Last edited 7-11-05.

The authors have taken the original notion of the Wiggins and McTighe’s backward design and added detail to provide a more clear system for and view of the process, thus making it easier for someone new to the concept to implement not only the spirit, but also the details of the process. The backward design template was first introduced in the IREX sponsored Middle Level Teacher Training Projects (MLT). The HST BD Template is an extension of that original work, adjusted for current Armenian realities and the priorities of the HST Project.

Below begins a discussion on the backward design process as captured—in summary—in the BD Template (Figure 4.1).

Enduring understandings and learning benchmarks

Enduring understanding which the big idea is, refers to transferable concepts, principles, and theories that should serve as the focal point of curricula, instruction and assessment. Refers to the important ideas or core processes that are central to a discipline and transferable to new situation and that have lasting value-beyond the classroom. In thinking about Enduring understandings for a unit or course, teachers are encouraged to ask. “What do we want students to understand and be able to use several years from now, after they have forgotten the details?”

Enduring understandings are an easy concept to consider, but can be difficult to write, because they are so broad. The steps and considerations for creating enduring understanding from the BD Template are show below in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2. Considerations for writing Enduring Understandings from the HST BD Template

2. Essential/Enduring Understanding(s):

- These should include concepts and can be considered the broad goals for the unit.
- “Essential” means the **core** elements mastered by **every student** that studies this unit.
- “Enduring” means the elements of this unit that the student will **not forget**. Remember that facts are often forgotten, **concepts and general understanding can** be enduring.
- This can also include key relationships among “pieces” of knowledge that help the pieces make a whole picture in an integrated unit (e.g., a unit on the social, economic, political and scientific aspects of the 1988 Armenian earthquake).

Learning Benchmarks, Specific Concepts, and General Knowledge

If the enduring understandings are the broadest of the topic, the next level are the “Learning Benchmarks.” Learning benchmarks can include specific concepts—which are understandings organized around a theme or idea—*that can become part of the measurement of student understanding through various forms of assessments from traditional to performance-based assessment.* While benchmark is the most precise term, for the curriculum author if the idea of concept or “general knowledge” is a more readily understandable term, then they can—in general—serve the purpose as one puts the benchmarks into words.

The **learning benchmarks** are the major things that the children do to show they are learning. If the enduring understandings are the basis for study, the learning benchmarks are the tools to help create appropriate assessment instruments to serve as intermediate and eventually comprehensive examination of students’ conceptual understandings and performance capabilities at the conclusion of the unit. For the units which follow, the benchmarks were used to write the sample scoring rubrics for each assessment task. See Figure 4.3 below as well.

Figure 4.3: The Learning Benchmarks as shown in the BD Template.

3., Learning Benchmarks: Specific Concepts & General Knowledge

- What general concepts will this unit address (e.g., democratic thinking and values, voters' rights, etc.)
- ***How will the teacher know when the students have achieved understanding (i.e., the benchmarks)?***
- What, in general terms, will the students **do** to show that they have met these goals? (Consider a mix of original and traditional evidence, e.g., written tests as well as unique activities, problem solving, use of higher order thinking skills, and collaborative work.)

Knowledge and Skills – The Details on What the Students Must Know and Be Able to Do!

In a traditional curriculum writing this is the level at which curriculum writers would begin. The details—that is the facts, the skills (and processes represented through skill development)—while accurate impede the design of a unit that can work from and toward the understanding of larger concepts, processes, using an integrated approach. The authors support

the notion of knowledge and skills at the core of learning, but advocate that they be considered ***after*** the enduring understanding and learning benchmarks have been established.

For years Western curriculum designers and textbooks focused on knowledge and skills. Students' abilities to use those skills in new, novel, or ***integrated*** situations was lacking. Progressive countries world-wide now use the larger ideas—i.e, the equivalents of enduring understandings and benchmarks—to set the focus, direction, and framework on which students can learn and apply their knowledge and skills. Such an approach lets the learner master the important knowledge and skills and place them in their growing framework of understanding in context. When the knowledge and skills are interconnected—through enduring understandings and learning benchmarks—they are more capable of using that knowledge and those skills in new and unique circumstances in the future.

Figure 4.4: Knowledge and skills from the BD Template.

4. Knowledge & Skills: i.e., what must students know and be able to do?

These may include:

- facts, formulas, dates, key laws and regulations, which may be memorized may be included here as well
- basic skills,
- intellectual skills such as application of logic, problem solving skills and specific types of higher order thinking (refer to Bloom's taxonomy);
- development of accurate models, examples, and visual or verbal "portraits."

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At this point the reader is encouraged to pause in their study of this chapter and examine examples from the integrated units which follow. Making sense of the place of **enduring understandings, learning benchmarks, knowledge, and skills** in the units—and their hierarchical inter-relationships—is critical to master the BD process. Look for the broad to specific pattern from enduring understanding to knowledge and skills. This is at the heart of planning organized and logical units that help students master and make use of what they are learning in school.

Adding Explanation & Order: Rationale, Relevance, Guiding Questions, and Concept Maps

The curriculum designer must always be thinking about the value of the unit, that is why it is important and how it will be of use to the learner. In our BD Template we have included this typically informal process in a more formal way. The elements in this section (see Figure 4.5) of the BD template assist curriculum designers in this reconfirmation process to assure themselves that they are creating an organized and sensible unit. The elements of this section of the BD process assist the reader in gaining insights into the authors' purposes for designing the unit, consider the pivotal questions to encourage higher order thinking, and the have the opportunity to "see" the organization of the unit as a visual, through the concept map.

Figure 4.5. Relevance, rationale, guiding questions, and concept maps in the unit.

5. Relevance, Rationale, Guiding Questions, & Concept Map:

- Briefly, how would you justify the teaching of this subject to a parent, administrator, or Ministry official related to student understanding?
- Consider relationships to other topics (interdisciplinary planning) and the importance of the content to knowledge acquisition, life skills, values, pre-university examinations, etc. Use of guiding questions is encouraged
- The addition of the concept map supports the general understanding of the relevance and rationale for teaching the unit. By providing a visual, the interconnections and overall conceptual framework are reinforced using a different learning style

Rationale

During selecting the general content of a unit you are probably using your own philosophy of education and your social studies rationale or approach to the social studies to determine what is important to teach and for student to learn. What do you want students to gain in content, skills and values? This forces us to consider what are sound education practices for the age group we are teaching. Normally we want high student involvement with a connection to a real life.

After identifying your understandings, benchmarks, and what do you want your student know (knowledge) and do (skills), you should explain or answer to the following questions.

- **Why do students need this knowledge and these skills?**
- **Why this theme, unit or course is important to study?** How would you justify the teaching of this theme (unit, course) to a parent, administrator, or Ministry official?

We must be able to answer them questions for ourselves and for the readers of our units if they are to know what kind of people we want our student to become, as a result of their study of a unit.

Relevance

For many teachers, the strength of interdisciplinary planning (consider relationships to other topics) is that teachers can set it in a context that is relevant to students and fits their needs. In this step of unit design, you justify and reconsider the age-appropriate and relevant theme or topic of your unit, answering the question, “How does it fit with what the students know or need to know, related to this unit and the real world?”

Usually topic or theme comes from the standard document. Two popular strategies for increasing relevance are

1. to begin with student-generating questions. and
2. to set the learning in a local context.

Of course these are not done without the teachers influence in setting the tone, the direction, and the topic. The experience teacher/curriculum writer will know what motivates and interests their students and will write curriculum that is relevant to those interests and abilities without problem. This does not preclude the teacher seeking student generated questions; however it will guide and direct the type of questions that the teacher asks.

Since relevance to the student is such an important concept, we have include some further discussion on this topic below. The authors believe that it will help the new curriculum writer think further not only about relevance alone, but relevance related to understandings, benchmarks, knowledge, and skills.

Involving students in the learning/planning process.

Asking students what they want to learn is teaching strategy for a teacher. Students choose an integrated topic to explore. You will see the high level of student engagement and achievement when they are answering their own questions. To defend their choices, students are required to identify the standards addressed in the theme or topic. After that students will know standards better and appreciate learning them in the context of their interests.

Relevance, accountability, and assessment

Curriculum planners cannot ignore the fact that students learn better when the material is relevant to them. Often the only relevancy a teacher can offer is that the material will be on a test, or that students need to know it in a higher grade. Aligning instruction and assessment with student interests engage students in and promotes retention of learning.

When curriculum writers work together they may find that they are constantly wrestling with tensions that take them back and forth between two seemingly irreconcilable positions. The broadly characterized these positions as accountability (students learn what they are supposed to learn as defined by government mandates) versus relevance. Table 4.1 below identifies several of the tensions was found between accountability and relevance.

Table 4.1

Accountability or relevance?

Accountability	Relevance
We need to cover the standards to be accountable.	We need to be meaningful to students, and the standards aren't necessarily relevant.
We need to follow mandated curriculum.	Students are often really interested in local issues, but these issues aren't in the standards.
We need to think like assessors when planning activities.	We know some great activities that students will enjoy.
One-half of the class missed Question 5 on the standardized exam.	We want to focus on the big ideas and interdisciplinary skills that students can use for life.
We need to use a zoom lens (microscope) to make sure we are aligning curriculum with discipline standards.	We need use a wide angle lens to find the connection and overlaps across the curriculum. Through connections, we can make learning more relevant.

When one considers the tensions to be as both/and, work may continue more efficiently.

Using the metaphors of a zoom lens and a wide-angle lens, or a microscope, to see the little picture and deal with issues of accountability. The wide-angle lens helps to explore the big picture necessary for interdisciplinary work. Sometimes educators needed to shift back and forth between the two , and other times, we needed to use both at once. Both accountability and relevance are the focus of effective teaching. Educators are beginning to make sense of and put into practice a BOTH/AND vision of education as shown in Table 4.2 below

Table 4.2.

A BOTH/AND Vision of Education.

BOTH	AND
Accountability	Relevance
KNOW/DO	BE
Disciplinary concepts and skills	Set in the context a wider umbrella of interdisciplinary skills and concepts
Specialization in later years	Set in the context of the wider real word.
Identification of criteria for interdisciplinary skills and direct instruction for them	Applied across subject area.
Standardized or written tests	Performance-based assessment
Quantitative measures	Quantitative measures
Teachers collaboratively planning with other teachers	Students collaboratively planning with teachers
Teacher-generated questions	Student-generated questions
Traditional instructional strategies (e.g. lecture, phonics)	Set in a more holistic context (e.g., lecture set in the context of active learning and a variety of instructional strategies: phonics set in the context of whole language)

Integrated Unit (curriculum)-done thoughtfully-can address both accountability and relevance needs. The only way to cover the standards and provide constructive assessment is to integrate.

Guiding Questions

.Once the priorities described above have been considering, identified, and clarified, the driving forces behind the study of the unit—from the students’ perspective can be identified. Questions are a powerful organizer for units, especially guiding questions .Questions do more than serve as doorways to understanding. They can effectively establish priorities in a course of study. An effective practice for ensuring higher-level thinking is to organize learning experience around a few carefully selected questions to frame the unit. Then, teachers can organize content around these questions. We use the term “guiding questions” to describe these organizers.

Guiding questions act as an overarching bridge across the unit of study. Three or four questions are enough. In some instance one artfully created question can serve as the “anchor” for an entire unit.

It is important to share these questions with students. Many teachers actually develop the questions with their students. Posting the questions in the classroom helps to keep students and teacher focused on answering them during the unit. It also supports the extrinsic rationale—why are we studying this subject/topic—for the students, which are more inclined to work when they have a sense of the value and relevance of the topic to them!

Creating guiding questions takes some thoughts. A common trap is to ask low-order questions that only require facts for an answer- a particular hazard if students create the questions. One way to avoid this is to ask questions that begin with “why” and “how” rather than “what”, “where”, and “when”.

Guiding questions fall into two categories: Essential and topic questions. Essential questions are broad, abstract and similar in nature of enduring understandings. The questions are complex, and they have no easy answers. These questions naturally lead to other questions during study. Essential questions are interdisciplinary and recur the curriculum. Essential questions point to the key inquiries and the core ideas of discipline.

Guiding questions, like enduring understandings seem easy to write at first, but in reality can be quite challenging. Below are a series of suggestions and key points to consider when writing guiding questions, as drawn from Traver (1998).

- Organize programs, courses, units of study, and learning events around the questions. Make the content the answers to the questions.
- Select or design assessment tasks, up front, that are explicitly linked to the questions. The tasks and performance standards should clarify what acceptable pursuit of, and answers to, the questions actually like.
- Use a reasonable number of questions per unit (between two and five). Make less be more. Prioritize content for students to make the work clearly focus on a few key questions.
- Edit the questions to make them as engaging and provocative as possible for the particular age group. Frame the questions in “kid language” as appropriate.

- Trough a survey or informal check, ensure that every child understands the questions and sees their value.
 - Derive and design specific exploratory activities and inquires for each question.
 - Sequence the questions so they lead naturally from one to another.
 - Post the overarching in the classroom, and encourage students to organize notebooks around them to emphasize their importance for study and note taking.
 - Help students to personalize the questions. Encourage them to share examples, personal stories, and hunches, and to bring clippings and artifacts to class to help questions come alive.
 - Allot sufficient time for “unpacking” the questions-examining sub questions and probing implications. Be mindful of student age, experience, and other instructional obligations.
- Use question-concept maps to show relatedness of questions.

Using only essential questions to frame a unit does not always work well. The questions may be too abstract to be helpful organizers. In this case, some questions need to focus on the topic questions. Topic questions are still complex and demand more than one right answer. They lead to interdisciplinary work. Topic questions are more specific and, often, more useful to direct the learning experiences.

Concept Maps

The authors have included concept maps for each of their units. The map becomes another way to access understanding of the content and even the events of the unit. Concept maps help curriculum designers re-examine and refine their units looking for logical sequences of study within the unit as well as connections among the element of the units. We advocate the use of it for unit planning and also as an instructional tool for students, as they make sense of the knowledge and put it in proper context and sequence. The process of actually constructing your own concept map is a powerful learning strategy that is graphic in nature and forces the learner to think about the relationship between terms, concepts and ideas. The term “concepts” means an object or event that is labelled with a word. The concept maps work especially well in helping one make sense of things from a different perspective, that is using a different form of [multiple] intelligence.

It is a tangible way to display how your mind "sees" a particular topic. By constructing a concept map, you reflect on what you know and what you don't know. In a concept map, the concepts, usually represented by single words enclosed in a rectangle (box), are connected to other concept boxes by arrows. A word or brief phrase, written by the arrow, defines the relationship between the connected concepts. Major concept boxes will have lines to and from several other concept boxes generating a network.

What are Concepts Maps?

Concept maps have slowly been gaining popularity over the last 15-20 years and have become anchors for thinking in certain forms of assessment as well as within modern textbooks. Concept mapping helps students learn meaningfully by taking new information and integrating it into prior knowledge. Ideas are arranged in networks of interconnected and interrelated ideas that promotes

- deep processing of knowledge, and better understanding,
- ability to apply knowledge in new situations,
- improves understanding, and
- good scientific research suggests that concept mapping facilitates problem solving.

Key to concepts maps are the following:

- Concepts are learning tools.
- A concept map is a hierarchical diagram used to represent a set of concepts that eventually are broken down into their elements and related fact and knowledge.
- Key concepts are connected by links with descriptive word, explaining the relationship between the concepts, the facts, and the knowledge.
- Concepts maps are spatial representations of ideas and their interrelationships.
- Concepts maps are graphs consisting of nodes representing concepts and labeled lines representing the relationships among them.
- Semantic networking is the process of constructing these concept maps.
- Also known as:
 - Semantic networks
 - cognitive structures

- knowledge structures
- conceptual knowledge
- spider maps

What are some uses for Concept Maps or Semantic Networks?

- Study Guides, concepts maps are learning tools, a method for focusing the process of studying in a constructive way.
- Knowledge Reflection and integration tool, concept mapping provides a method for learners' self-assessment of their own learning.
- Concepts mapping can be used a planning tool, they provide a shorthand form for organizing and sequencing ideas.
- Concepts Maps can be used to Assess Learning, concepts maps generated after instruction reflect the growth of knowledge of the learner.
- Help us refine our creative and critical thinking.

Tips and Coaching the construction of Concept Maps.

Concept maps are powerful organizing, teaching, and learning tools. Although often used in Armenia, in the authors' experience the mapping techniques are not utilized to their full extent, since most maps used are not extended beyond simple relationships among ideas. Concepts maps can become much more than that with practice and discipline. Our maps in the units are more complex, as a way of thinking about maps there is a "concept map about concept maps" below (Figure 4.6)

The following set of steps are designed to help—preferably with facilitation from an expert—the reader expand their ideas about and uses for concept maps

Make a plan and set a direction for the concept map.

- What are you representing?
- What points do you want to make?
- What kind of information is needed to make the points?
- What goals are we working toward?

Concept Maps to Generate Ideas

Concept maps are an excellent tool for generate ideas (brainstorming) or organizing them, as has been shown in the units which follow.. However; they are equally useful to

- Design complex structures (long texts, hypermedia, large web sites);
- Communicate complex ideas;
- Aid learning by explicitly integrating new and old knowledge; and
- Assess understanding or diagnose misunderstanding on the part of the learner.
- Demonstrate the interconnectedness of ideas.
- Improve problem-solving performance in learners.

Identify the important concepts.

- Have students list important concepts.
- Prompt students to highlight only single words or short phrases that are important for understanding the content, in textbooks, lectures or articles.

Create, define and elaborate nodes that is, key generalization or concepts.

- Create and label a node for each concept listed in step 2.
- Add pictures, descriptive text, synonyms, hyperlinks to each node when appropriate.

Construct links and link concepts.

- Have students create a link between two concepts and describe precisely the relationship between the two ideas.
- What makes a "good link?"
- Preciseness and descriptiveness. (avoid links such as "is connected to")
- Be sure to interlink existing concepts as much as possible.
- The more interconnected your map is the more meaningful your understanding of concepts will be.

Continue to expand the map.

- The process continues until the builder feels the idea is explained well enough.
- Then “step back,” and examine the draft map. Once done refine and revise, which leads to reflection!

Prompt students to reflect on the process.

Reflections should be ongoing in the process of building a concept map. Students should be review their work and asking themselves.

- Am I achieving my goals?
- What changes should I make?
- Am I answering the questions in my plan?
- What have we learned on the content?
- What do we still need to know

Evaluating Concepts Maps

The cognitive processes used by concept mapping are complex. Although in this text they are portrayed for use in unit planning, they are marvelous instructional tools as well. Hence a few words on grading or evaluating them is appropriate. It is difficult at first. However, with practice and by having the students “talk from their maps [to the teacher]” as they present them, additional meaning making and interpretation becomes easier and more consistent.

Criteria that can be used to assess concept maps:

- The number of nodes indicates the breadth of the map.
- The number of node/link combinations indicate completeness.
- The ratio of instances to concepts is an indicator of how well integrated the concepts in the domain are embedded.
- The depth can be measured by levels of nodes represented.
 - Is the linking valid?
 - Are the relationships clear and descriptive?
 - The accuracy of the information included in the map.

Limitations of concepts maps.

Of course concept maps can not truly map ones mind, just what we think is in the mind. While there are many strengths to the use of concept maps, a few comments on the limitations are needed as well. Concepts maps have a limited ability to represent causal relationships. The concept maps represent dynamic thought processes, thus each. is contextual to the experiences and backgrounds of those producing the maps; hence the need for a clear set of grading criteria or rubric.

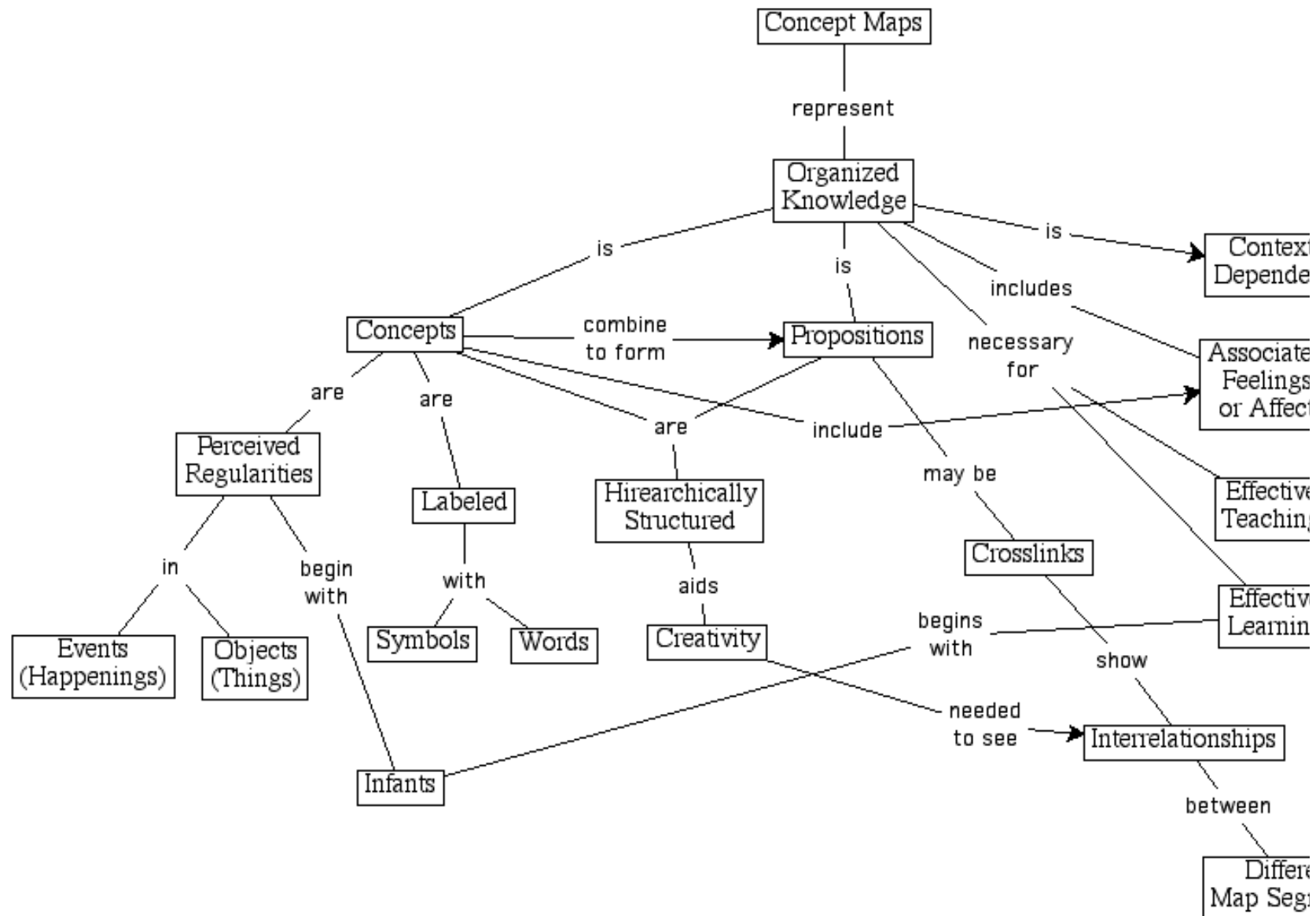
Summary

In learning to construct a concept map, it is important to begin with a domain (*an area*) of knowledge that is very familiar to the person constructing the map. Since concept map structures are dependent on the context in which they will be used, it is best to identify a segment of a text, a laboratory activity, or a particular problem or question that one is trying to understand. This creates a context that will help to determine the hierarchical structure of the concept map. It is also helpful to select a limited domain of knowledge for the first concept maps. Once a domain has been selected, the next step is to identify the **key concepts** that apply to this domain. These could be listed, and then from this list a rank order should be established from the most general, most inclusive concept, for this particular problem or situation, to the most specific, least general concept. Although this rank order may be only approximate, it helps to begin the process of map construction.

The next step is to construct a preliminary concept map. This can be done by writing all of the concepts and related knowledge, facts, and processes on **Post-its Notes**. Once written, the post-its can be reorganized easily until the map begins to become a clear and consistent representation of the concepts and related knowledge. Post-its allow a group to work on a whiteboard or butcher paper and to move concepts around easily concepts and links to restructure the map. It saves paper, and especially in cooperative groups, encourages higher order thinking. The most preferable way to generate maps is by using a computer software program, though it is impractical for many in Armenian schools today..

For the visually learner, we have created a concept map below. Please also examine the sample maps among the attached units.

Figure 4.6 A concept map about concept mapping



Demonstrations of Understanding: Assessment Tasks

The role of assessment in backward design process is quite different from traditional one, because here unit and learning event designers start planning from judging about targets that are to be achieved and tools that will measure the level of achievement. Assessments are easier to write and receive more attention in the BD process, when compared to some other design approaches. Although assessment is the sixth item in the BD template, the assessment priorities, tasks and performances should be considered at all points during the conception of the unit, that is during steps 2-5. Figure 4.7 includes the general elements of the assessment tasks for the BD Template.

Figure 4.7. The assessment task for the BD Template

6. Assessment Task(s): What will students do to demonstrate their mastery of the knowledge and skills? Reexamine elements 2-5 before writing out the assessment tasks.
- Consider:
- varied assessments (e.g. performance & traditional);
 - at least one pre-assessment to determine the **existing level of the learners'** knowledge, skills, values, and conceptual understanding (may be formal or informal, **but must include sufficient detail to help the teacher teach to the needs and abilities of the students**);
 - formative assessment;
 - a final assessment that includes both traditional and performance (i.e., "authentic") activities; and
 - a grading rubric for the final authentic assessment.

As has been discussed in detail elsewhere in this handbook and its companion, assessment cannot be left as something you do ***after you have taught much of the content***. The assessment ***must be planned during the "birth of the unit"*** not near its completion. Once the learning "targets" including the enduring understandings, the learning benchmarks, and the knowledge and skills are clearly delineated, the assessment deserves immediate attention. The definition of a rationale, identification of context (i.e., relevance), crafting of guiding questions, and the visual map of events, concepts, and knowledge—the concept map—further define the "purpose" of the unit, ***which is*** also the "purpose" of the assessment!

This leaves the choice and need to define the “method” of assessment. When teachers thoroughly have decided to pursue some essential/enduring understandings, learning benchmarks and knowledge and skills teaching certain unit/learning event, after this teachers should think which assessment tools can adequately measure if students hit the target. For example, 1. if teacher intended to know how well students memorize facts about Avarair battle, they can simply make a multiple choice test, 2. if they want to know how well students can negotiate about religious problems they need to create a role play or debate activity as an authentic assessment tools and a rubric to measure students’ skills of negotiation. After making decisions about assessment tools teachers start designing instruction process. So for the 1st case teachers can use small group techniques for reading and communicating about information on Avarair war or lecture etc. For the second case teachers should thoroughly design the process of role playing: it can have 4 steps:

1. Home preparation (reading the novel of Derenik Demirchyan, tractat of Eznik Koghbaci, finding materials from encyclopedia, chronics etc).
2. Real classroom should be divided into two groups, where students will be prepared discussing and learning background of representatives of Armenian Christianity in one group and Persian Zoroastrism in another. Then interiorizing the roles communicating in the groups and trying answer to possible questions.
3. After this classroom is divided into four groups: in each group there are representatives of both sides and negotiation begins. Teacher can try to observe all 4 groups in turn and fill the rubric, but h/she also can previously choose 3 advanced students to help with monitoring of groups.
4. After negotiations in the groups it’s the time for debriefing. Students speak about 4E’s.

Teacher has a rubric created by him/her for assessment of this process. It can be like the following show in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

An example of a rubric for an end-of-unit performance

Feature / Grade	Outstanding	Very Good	Satisfactory	Unacceptable
Does student know the historic material; do reflect his/her judgments principles of religions and political situation of the 5 th century?	Student knows situation and the principles of both religions very well, uses own judgments, makes inferences, quotes sources etc.	Student is familiar with material, knows basic information and uses it to negotiate about religious questions.	Student participates not very actively, but makes good points. Sometimes in his/her statements there are some errors and misunderstanding of historic material.	Student does not participate in discussion, or says wrong things.
Are statements of negotiators clear, logically connected?	Yes, student is able to explain everything h/she intended to say in clear and logical way.	Student explains everything but sometimes friends need more explications to understand the meaning of his/her statements.	Student tries to explain his/her viewpoint, but it causes misunderstandings. Statements are blurred; it's difficult to connect his/her sentences into logical chain.	Student cannot make clear and comprehensible judgments; his/her speech is disconnected and does not make sense.
Is his/here speech rhetoric, does h/she use	Fully. Student arguments and persuades with	Student sometimes shows good examples of	Student tries to force opponents by loud voice, by using	Student really lacks skills of rhetoric communication, his

rhetoric questioning, are his/her persuasive techniques fair.	enthusiasm, uses intonation, passion, rhetoric questioning etc. Student does not use unfair presumptions.	rhetoric speech. Also is able to understand which arguments worth to be used.	unwanted techniques (e.g. criticizing person not idea, etc.), his/her speech is poor of expression.	speech is monotone, uninteresting to listen, sentences are discrete and even if others in the group are waiting to listen him/her h/she is not able to maintain their attention.
Does h/she have culture of listening, not interrupting, saying own ideas in positive manner trying not to harm?	Student is polite, is able to express own thoughts but also is tolerant and can listen to others. Responses to mistakes peacefully.	Student tries to listen carefully, to speak respectfully, but argumenting with passion sometimes can forget about ethical rules of debate.	Student is mainly polite, but sometimes shows intolerance.	Student loses his/her temper while negotiating and is rejected by other members of the group.

And making this rubric teacher should think whether he/she has chosen the most important features to assess, if h/she determined adequately different levels of competence, if this rubric as assessment tool really reflects the understandings, benchmarks, knowledge and facts that teacher was trying to teach. So teacher is doing assessment of assessment, h/she is assessing previously the assessment tool. And for the rubric above it will be difficult to infer which essential understanding was pursuing by teacher. Because it measures the skills of negotiation, but not the essential understanding of real historical process. In reality everything ended with war that was equally destroying for both sides. This rubric can be good for one learning event in the unit, but for revealing students' mastery of the understanding of the war for Christianity it is insufficient.

As suggested Wiggins and McTighe (1998, pp.63-66) having clarified understanding – the desired result of teaching – we should move to the next stage of backward design; here we ask questions about assessment:

- What is evidence of in-depth understanding as opposed to superficial or naïve understanding?
- Where should we look and what should we look for to determine the extent of student understanding?
- What kinds of assessment tasks and evidence needs will anchor our curricular units and thus guide our instruction?

Authors suggest to use range of methods of assessment and not to err only using one tool (even if it is well designed), because for evidence gathering ongoing assessment is vital. So for our 2nd example teacher can think also about an essay which will reveal if students really understand the meaning of Avarair battle or about making newsletter were students should represent not only data but also comments.

Making integrated units educators should think about diagnostic, formative and summative assessment tools that can be sufficient for making inferences about students' achievement. In the section about methods of assessment you can find practical steps of designing certain assessment tools. Here the main point is to be attentive and create tools that are connected with essential understandings, benchmarks, knowledge and skills stated in the first step of BD. The curriculum writers should review the goals, benchmarks, concepts, knowledge to answer the question if assessment tasks align with and reflect the broader nature of the goals/benchmarks/concepts and the specifics of the knowledge and skills? Educators should also think about validity and reliability of designed assessment tasks.

Designing A Unit – Creating Learning Events

Learning events instead of lessons – a focus on teaching for understanding

Usually the unit of teaching is considered lesson. In this case curriculum and textbook developers try to fit their ideas in one lesson time period (between the bells). That is ***everything***

from beginning to end, must occur between the beginning and end of the class period on any given day. Certainly able teachers have learned to plan beyond this artificial constraint on lesson planning, however, many have not. The authors believe, as do Matkins and Varrella (2004) that this artificial limited negatively effects planning for purposeful teaching. Currently specialists stress the importance of teaching for understanding, effective learning outcomes. For reaching this aims content issues must be a priority. For this purpose Juanita Jo Matkins and Gary Varrella are using the term “learning event,” to send a message that when they talk about lesson planning, that it should be planned to meet the goals (i.e., benchmarks, knowledge, and skills for that lesson) of the lesson, not the time constraints of the teaching period for any given day. To emphasize this small, but significant difference, Varrella (2001) established a specific term, that of the “learning event.” Matkins and Varrella (2003) wrote “... dedicated professional educators **plan for learning first**, based on goals and outcomes, not just to teach a topic in a specified amount of time (i.e. one class period). Many ‘learning events’ can be completed in just one class period—like to old concept of a lesson plan—however, in many instances one class period is inadequate to meet the goals for the specific topic/concept to be studied. Thus the term learning event is introduced allow the teacher the freedom to plan instruction to *effectively and efficiently* meet goals and objectives, rather than letting the class period define the planning, which may result in a poor job of teaching the subject.” Learning events can last in one “lesson period” or take few “lesson periods.” According to Matkins and Varrella “Hence a “unit that might be 10 days (spanning 10 class periods) long, may have only 4 – 6 learning events—some of which might be the same length as the class period and others might span 2 or more class periods.” When the reader inspects the model integrated units in this handbook, please notice that some learning events are longer than one or even two “lesson periods.” Thus we took our priorities and used them to guide our instructional plan, setting time aside in order to best plan for learning and understangings. During last years many Armenian teachers use interactive and cooperative methods of teaching. And sometimes they complain that one class time is not enough for using such methods. This is an evidence of giving time a priority rather than to the content. Hence, the authors believe concept of learning event is important and appropriate for the Armenian reality because they, like their American colleagues are constrained by artificial time periods, rather than empowered by planning purposeful teaching dominated by goals and appropriate assessment targets.

Another important issue is that teachers are frequently using out of class activities during teaching. These activities especially are important for social studies teachers. During recent years some of social studies teachers were involved in community service learning projects, which connect curriculum issues with real life issues. In this case we cannot talk about lessons, because these are learning events.

Learning events are not revolutionary, but they are empowering and a small, but important means for reforming teaching. They help to emphasize the content issues in planning, which should always be the first priority. The elements of this particular step in the BD Template process are shown below in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8, The instructional planning phase of Armenian HST BD process.

7. Instruction – Planning the Learning Events for the Unit

- **Resources:** What materials and resources can I use to help students perform well on the assessments
- **Specific Instructional Activities:**
 - What instructional strategies can I use to help students perform well on the assessments?
 - How will the sequence of study proceed? *Create a sequenced teaching timeline*
 - Develop learning event descriptions (plans) with adequate detail to guide teachers in teaching this model unit.
- **Technology:** How might technologies be used to support the learning activities in this unit of instruction? Consider only real resources that are readily available.

A framework for learning event planning (the 5 E's)

Matkins and Varrella connect learning events with Learning Cycle theory. The learning cycle theory was originated by Karplus (1964), a University of California Physicist, and his colleagues in the early 1960's. The cycle originally had three steps designed to facilitate lesson planning to encourage inquiry including an exploration, content introduction, and application phase. The learning cycle has proven to be a resilient planning model having become a common practical planning tool among western educators in science Though it's roots are in science, it is a more universal approach and completely applicable in the domain of social studies. This is especially pertinent, since as noted elsewhere in these two handbooks, the authors are advocating

interactive techniques and even inquiry in social studies. The Learning Cycle in its present most popular form, has been refined and consists of “5E’s” including:

1. Engagement
2. Exploration
3. Explanation
4. Elaboration
5. Evaluation.

Let’s consider each component of 5E’s

Engagement

One of the main issues which every teacher will take into consideration is starting from the point where the students are. In engagement phase teachers task is find out students background knowledge about the topic. If you feel that children lack the background knowledge, you will begin carefully introduce the concept. The second task of the teacher is arousing curiosity and set a direction for the learning event. In this phase students will have a clear understanding of what they will do. Hooking students is very important in engagement cycle.

Exploration

This phase of the Learning cycle is student-centered. Students work in groups exploring main concepts. Teacher is acting as an observer, sometimes posing questions to students which will help them understand the concepts. David Crowther (2005) think that in this phase students need “adequate time for thorough investigation”.

Explanation

This phase is teacher-centered. David Crowther consider this cycle “the meat of the learning event”. Here is where you will carefully develop a specific questioning sequence that relates to the new knowledge that you identified as your purpose of the learning event. The sequence of questions in this portion of the learning event is most important. Here is where your knowledge of children development and learning theory really becomes important. This is the

place to reflect on stages of learning, moving from concrete to abstract, from the known to the new.

During learning event development you are the one who is responsible for knowing the content well enough that you can flexibly respond to what children do and say. Your knowledge of various ways to teach will be needed to decide if you must revise your learning event plan in midstream. Your knowledge of management will be needed to help you redirect children who do not follow the "group" as you expected, yet need to be engaged for learning. All of these possibilities make teaching complex and often difficult to do well.

Elaboration

Depending upon the time that you have allocated for the learning event and the manner in which the learning event development proceeds, you will eventually need to bring the learning event to closure. If you completed the learning event development as you planned, then closure is really an elaboration of what was done and learned during the learning event. It is most helpful here if students are the ones who verbalize what was learned. It is also appropriate here to move students toward possible applications for what was learned. If the learning event development did not go as planned, then closure may merely be a temporary stopping point, with less elaboration, until you can resume tomorrow.

Learning theorists tell us that it helps us to retain new knowledge if we can link it to what is already known. This is the purpose that closure serves. We must help children make "chunks" out of the new information and relate it to what they already know so that the new knowledge can successfully stored, then retrieved at a later time.

Closure is important to retention of information and concepts. It is important, then, to watch the timing of the learning event so that ample time will be reserved for the closure. Remember, you will always have tomorrow. What you try to stuff into children's heads in the fleeting moments of a learning event probably won't be retained anyway. The time would be better spent in a good closure, saving other new information for another learning event.

Evaluation

Evaluation is a continuous process. You should be evaluating all time. You will have a sense of how the learning event is proceeding. As you gain experience, you should find it easier

to watch the responses of children. In the initial stages it may be difficult for you to do this with much accuracy. But still, you will have a sense of the learning event, which is part of evaluation.

If you planned your learning event to carefully reflect your stated purpose or objective, then evaluation should follow naturally. The type of activities that you plan should allow you to answer the question, "What did children learn about my objective and how did they demonstrate that learning?"

The value of evaluation comes in the closeness of match between your purpose and the activities in which you engage children. One of the most frequent problems that inexperienced teachers have is selecting developmentally appropriate activities that match the proposed objective. This again takes us back to careful preplanning and really knowing what is to be taught and how it might be best learned.

Evaluation of the children's learning should also lead you into evaluating your planning and presentation of the learning event. Here is where objectivity on your part is needed. Every learning event that you teach will not be wonderful and you will need to be objective about your inexperience and what you still need to learn and/or practice. It is hard to move what we know in our heads into our behavior, especially teaching behavior that is so new to us.

At the close of a learning event, you should take time to step back and look objectively as you reflect upon your teaching and interactions with the content and the learners. The reflecting that you will do should help you go back and hear yourself as "teacher," to revisit the learning event as you presented it to inform your evaluation of yourself. One of your goals this semester should be to become a more objective evaluator of yourself.

For some, this discussion may be all that is needed to consider and design learning events that meet the needs to the units, the school, the state, and of course the learners. However, for those interested in examining a planning template, we have created one which is appended at the end of this chapter.

Differentiation (Accommodations and Adpatations) and Reflection

Accommodations and Adaptations

Our students, even if they are the same age, are not always at the same developmental level. Accommodations and adaptations—also referred to commonly as “differentiation [for

students with special needs]—is something that all teachers must think about. It is often difficult, when writing general units, for the writers to imagine what special needs students might have. Hence, it is the duty and responsibilities of the teachers to answer the key question that is found in this aspect of the BD Template, “I have learners with special needs in my class?” What am I going to do to serve those needs. It is also important to appreciate that learners with special needs come at all levels, some may need remediation, or special assistance to succeed. However, others may not be academically challenged and need special attention and supplemental or more advance experiences and opportunities for study. (See Figure 4.9 below.)

Figure 4.9. Accommodations and adaptations for students with special needs (differentiation).

8. Accommodations and adaptations

- Do “I have learners with special needs in my class?”
- “What adaptations might I need to make to accommodate the unique needs of all students in my class?”

Reflection

One of the most important aspects of developing and expanding one’s skills as a curriculum developer is that of reflection. This can take many forms and is something that is entirely dependant upon the motivation of the educator to continually improve. The BD Template includes two “prompts” to encourage the curriculum designer or design team to examine the fruits of their labor with an eye for improvement. The BD Template specifically encourages the designer to reflect upon their assessments to confirm that they are aligned with the understandings, the benchmarks, the knowledge and content and of course the actual learning events. Consistency among all of these elements increases the opportunities for success on the part of the learners. (See Figure 4.10 below)

Figure 4.10. The role of general reflection and reflection and examination of the unit assessments in the BD planning process.

9. Think, pair, share: Exchange your work with another colleague or writing team to consider others’ opinions and suggested modifications

Assessment Task Analysis: *This is an internal check for consistency and is **informal**.* At this point in the planning, the curriculum writer(s) should review the goals, benchmarks, concepts, knowledge, and skills (i.e., items 2-7) in light of planned assessment task Essential question must

be answered—Do the assessment tasks align with and reflect the broader nature of the goals/benchmarks/ concepts and the specifics of the knowledge and skills? Are assessments valid and reliable?

Designing Units

The way to develop skills in unit design, using the BD approach is practice, preferably with colleagues who are teaching and working at the same levels in the educational system. The authors invite the reader to examine the model units that follow this discussion in light of what has been discussed here. The model units are designed to be used by classroom teachers at the HS level. In addition, they serve as examples for those motivated to create their own integrated HS school level units of instruction.

References

MAKE SURE YOU INCLUDE YOUR CITATIONS HERE. Below are ones I (GFV) used in my editing process.

- Karplus, R. (1964). The science curriculum improvement study--Report to the Piaget conference. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 2, 236-240.
- Matkins, J. J., & Varrella, G. F. (2004). *The learning cycle*. Unpublished manuscript available from the second author, Whitworth University, email requests to gvarrella@comcast.net, Spokane, WA.)
- Traver, R. (1998). What is a good guiding question? *Educational Leadership*, 55(6), 70-73.
- Varrella, G. F. (2001). *The 5E learning event planner*. (Available from the author, Whitworth University, email requests to gvarrella@comcast.net, Spokane, WA.)
- Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (1998). *Understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

“5E” Learning Cycle – Learning Event Planner

For use with the Armenian High School Level Backward Design Curriculum Planning Template

This model template is designed to guide the development teaching plans referred to as learning events. Completing every section may not be appropriate for every learning event. Hence, one must use professional judgment, knowledge of the content, and understanding of their learners abilities and needs.

Guiding Question for the learning event based on your unit planning guiding question(s).

Concepts and Sub-Concepts/Content to be Constructed: (What is “the point? Think about it in terms of enduring understanding and learning benchmarks. These items are important to the learning event’s *Expansion*, which is the point at which the students *do something* with what they have learned.)

The learning outcomes for this learning event: (Think in terms of what the students will learn or *know* and what they will *do*. Again consider the learning benchmarks, but also be certain to list the appropriate knowledge and skills. They may come directly from the unit planner, or be expanded as the writer chooses.)

Key Question(s) for this learning event that are subordinate to your guiding question(s) for this event:

Materials Needed:

Special Procedures, if any:

Elements of inquiry within this learning event (not *every* learning event must have elements of inquiry)

“RELEVANCE:” How does this learning event “connect” with others in this area of study? (This is from the students’ perspective, interests, and pre-/current- experiences.)

1st Two E’s: ENGAGEMENT & [OR] EXPLORATION. Which process skills will the students use and what will the students do, i.e, regarding exploration? (Include key pre-assessment activities, whether formal or informal.) ***Included might be things such as:***

- Processes skills
- Specifics pre-assessment event
- Your “motivator” or a description of how to initially engage the learners.

3rd E: EXPLANATION – construction of the concept and knowledge. What will you have the STUDENTS DO in order for them to construct the learning event's concept? What key questions will you use and what procedures or steps will be followed so that you can help the students to construct the concept? (Note: Explanation can include teacher *telling*, just remember to keep it to the context of the students' exploration and your conceptual/content goals.) *Included might be things such as:*

- Key questions and desired answers:
- Subject of guided discussion, lecture, sharing of experience, etc.
- Procedures/steps toward concept co-construction (you and you students) and content, knowledge, skills mastery:

4th E: EXPANSION of the Concept. (Which process skills will the students use? What activities will the students complete to help them expand their enduring understanding of the and meet the learning benchmarks? Explain the necessary steps & procedures.) *Included might be things such as:*

- Process Skills:
- Activity (procedures/steps), performance, open

5th E: EVALUATION of the content mastery and conceptual understanding. (What will the students do to demonstrate what they have learned, i.e., "authentic" performances, tests, etc.? Please provide a clear explanation about what will be done and how it demonstrates what students KNOW and can DO based on the learning event's concept(s) and content learning outcomes.) *Included might be things such as:*

- Performance Assessment: Pictorial, reflective, problem solving, model construction, traditional, using a concept map, ... INCLUDE YOUR RUBRIC
- Considerations related to differentiation of students' abilities (based on general abilities, assessments, students' performance during yesterday's learning event, etc.)

References

Please provide author, title, publisher, web site address and date. Remember, completing this part helps your colleagues with whom you might exchange learning event plans or jointly design units

11-7-05 (gfv)

Thematic Unit Planning Map

Thematic unit:	What does it mean to be a human being
Type of integration	Inter-subject integration, Multidisciplinary
Class	10 th grade
Author:	Silva Petrosyan
Primary subject group:	Philosophical anthropology, Biology, Health issues, Ethics, Psychology, Civic education, State and Law, Aesthetics, Culture and religion.
Secondary subject group:	Literature, History, and Life skills, Economics,.

2. Essential (Enduring) understandings

Students will be able to answer these key questions:

- 1) Human being: an animal or social creature?
- 2) How we are constructed as organisms?
- 3) What demands from us our body? How important is health and does it affect the other dimension of the human being
- 4) Care of soul (epimeleia): what is it? Is it actual in XXI century? How can help us philosophy and psychology?
- 5) In relationship to the notion of Paideia Who are the Armenian people? What are our special values and how do they effect our lives culturally, politically, economically,...?

Master a series of broad concepts related to:

- 6) Humans as dualistic creatures: body and soul.
- 7) Humans as incomplete beings. The need of education: Paideia.
- 8) Humans as moral beings: ethical virtues and values that are important for all people.
- 9) The problem of death and the meaning of life
- 10) Human being as legal being.
- 11) Diversity and dialogue of cultures.

3. Learning Benchmarks (specific concepts and general knowledge) – Student will:

- understand of self as a biological and social creature at the same time.
- refresh and summarize their prior knowledge about physiology of human.
- describe the what are the needs of body and how we should respond on them.
- apply the knowledge about the care of soul in everyday life.
- distinguish moral and legal issues of human life.
- appreciate humanistic values and respect Armenian national values.

4. Specific Knowledge and Skills

Students will define or explain the following: Human being

- Body: physiology
- Health culture
- Soul
- Care of soul: epimelea
- Paideia
- Virtue
- Ethical values
- Legal issues [anthropology]
- Cultural values
- Diversity and cultural dialogue
- Humanism and humanistic values
- “The place of Armenia and Armenians within the modern world societies and cultures?”

Students will analyze Elements of legal anthropology

- Examples of humanistic values that are common for everybody and special values for certain culture
- Examples from Armenian and world literature and history that are related with the theme

Students will be able to:

- make conclusions about the structure of their body
- follow the rules of healthy life

- find out the meaning of the care of soul. They will be able to think about it and feel responsibility for their personal growth .They will act as carers of soul.
- the students will have skills to apply all learned material in real life and become more aware with all discussed issues.
- the students will be able to be more attentive, empathetic with other people.

Relevance, Rationale, Guiding Questions, & Concept Map

Relevance & Rationale for this Unit (Significance)

Tenth graders are about to finish their compulsory schooling and entering adult life. The unit will help them to reflect on what it really mean to be a human being, within a modern society. Of course, literature and history give them material for thinking on such issues, but the fundamental approach is mainly philosophical. This latter point is significant since it introduces philosophical issues, problems, and dilemmas, which until this point have not been included in HS SS curriculum. Integrated unit will help students to look on human being as many-sided, complex being that is imperfect and needs to be cared every minute for remaining human. The students will become philosophical anthropologists as they examine what it means to be “human” and the eternal attempt to remain a human.

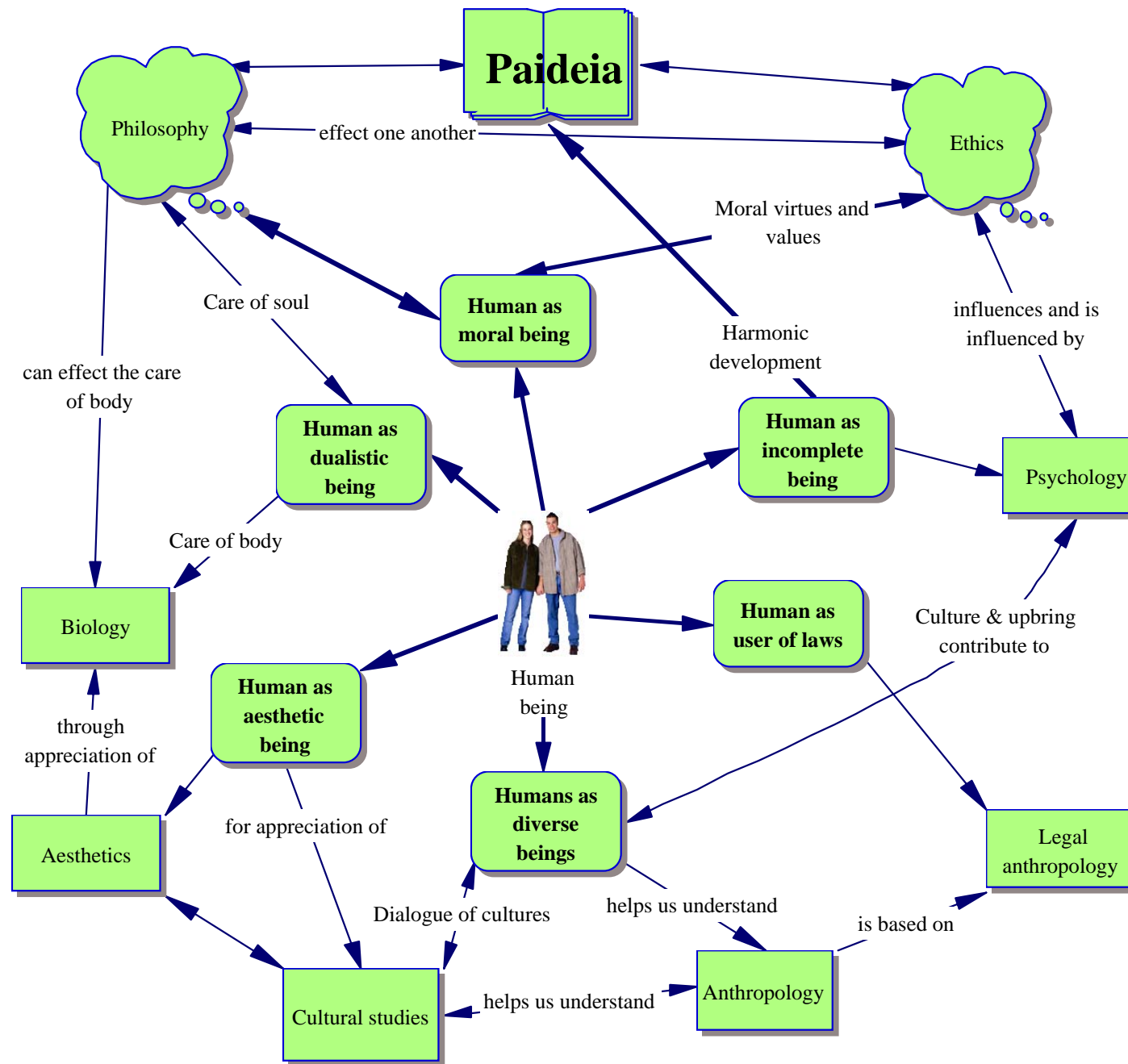
This knowledge and skills are important to the students, because they will help them clearly understand what it means to be a human being; why humans should care after their bodies and how important is health for person and society. While philosophical in nature the values that are developed and the examples that are used are practical and useful to everyday life, whether the student continues their studies or goes into the working world. Additionally they will understand why we should not forget about the “hunger of the soul,” which is important for self well-being They will judge about importance to cultivate ethical virtues and values, and will show awareness and ability to become more polite with themselves and others. Students will reflect about the life and realize that time is limited. Learning this unit students can understand and come to appreciate the national and international values.

Guiding questions for ensuring understanding (benchmarks):

- 1) What is human being? How do you think h/she is more biological or social?
- 2) How operate our bodies? Is it convenient?
- 3) Why we should care after our bodies?
- 4) What is soul? Do you use this word? When?

- 5) What is care of soul? Is it connected with philosophy? How?
- 6) What is Paideia? Could we survive without education? Why?
- 7) What does it mean that human is a moral being? Are you agree with this statement?
- 8) Why ethical values are not enough? Which kind of laws do we need?
- 9) Are humans the same everywhere? What is cultural diversity?
- 10) How is possible the dialogue between different cultures?
- 11)** Do we have our special place as Armenians in the cultural portrait of all mankind?

Map of Major Concepts Educated Within the Thematic Unit



Tasks to be evaluated

- to debate using role-playing techniques on different topics related with the theme;
- write a personal paper defining what is human being, why h/she is incomplete.
- to find out from existing literature (both Armenian and World) examples of discussions of the problem of human being and make comparisons and conclusions. Write a group report.

- to fill diaries for two weeks doing self-reflection, analyzing own behavior and connecting all of these with ethical and legal issues of humans.
- to invite famous people in the community and have Q&A session about the topic “What does it mean to be a human being”. (Teacher can assess the participation in Q&A judging about clarity and relevance of questions and comments made by students).
- To interview parents and grandparents about their meaning of life. And complete a paper about results and inferences.
- To do research in historical materials for finding some unique features of Armenian culture and make a wall paper as a group work.

Summary:

Timetable of the Thematic Unit

N	Topic of the learning event	Instructional hours (number of lessons)
1	Human being: an animal or social creature?	1
2	How we are constructed as organisms? What demands from us our body? How important is health?	2
3	Humans as dualistic creatures: body and soul.	1
4	Care of soul (epimeleia): what is it? Is it actual in XXI century? How can help us philosophy and psychology?	2
5	Humans as incomplete beings. The need of education: Paideia.	2
6	Humans as moral beings: ethical virtues and values that are important for all people. People as aesthetical beings: beauty as freedom.	2

7	The problem of eternity and the meaning of life	2
8	Is ethics sufficient? Human being as legal being.	2
9	Who we are: Armenian people? Do we have special values?	2
10	Why people don't understand each other: diversity and dialogue of cultures. .	2

Thematic Unit Planning Map

1. Thematic unit:	Symbols as a way of understanding/identifying history
Type of integration	Inter-subject integration, Multidisciplinary
Class	9-10 th grade
Authors:	Marine Arakelyan and Anahit Zohrabyan
Primary subject group:	Social science, history, geography, economy
Secondary subject group:	Literature, history of culture, stylistics, life skills, history of religion, logics

2. Essential/Enduring Understanding

Students will understand that

1. Symbols are inevitable in our every-day life.
2. Symbols are designed to bring life to the history, art, economics, science, literature and, finally, the heritage in our life itself.
3. Symbols are means to explore the nation's history, diversity, unity, pride and commitment to maintaining the nation's ideals.
4. There are: symbols with changing meanings and symbols with universal meanings. For instance, in one culture the idea of mourning is conveyed by the color black and in another by its opposite — white.
5. Symbols are presented as a means of protecting and identifying national values
6. Currency is also a symbol .
7. What role it plays in human beings' perception and how it associates with international aspect.
8. There are some certain symbolic language in common use
9. Each of them could have a set of symbols that associates with the surrounding.
- 10 Areas of application of symbols, edges of perception of the meaning of symbols

Learning Benchmarks (Specific Concepts and General Knowledge)

- State, nation – given country's specifics that condition the meaning of symbols, country's geographic position and borders.
Flag, anthem, national emblem. Governance system.
Symbol as a way of understanding a given country's history.
The role of symbols and their changes in the course of the history
- Religion - The role of the church, devotions, cross stones
- National values - National customs, folklore, traditional culture
- Art - Literature, fine arts, music, architecture, sculpture
- Time and distance
- Sense, meaning - Major concepts and additional details, meaningful and meaningless words.
How to reveal the focal meaning of the topic and the content. The identification of the meaning from the perspective of one's personality.
- Economic science, lifestyle - Product and service, supply and demand, inflation. Export and import. Currency as a symbol. Symbols used in life.

4. Knowledge and skills

- Students will know ...

- What is symbol?
- What role does it play?
- Symbols and I (their role in my life)
- Symbols as a means of protecting and identifying national values
- Recognition of symbols, understanding of their meanings
- Knowing areas of application of symbols
- Application of symbols in life
- Interpretation of symbols
- Symbols and cultural contexts :

Symbols with changing meanings

Symbols with universal meanings

- **Students will be able to.....**

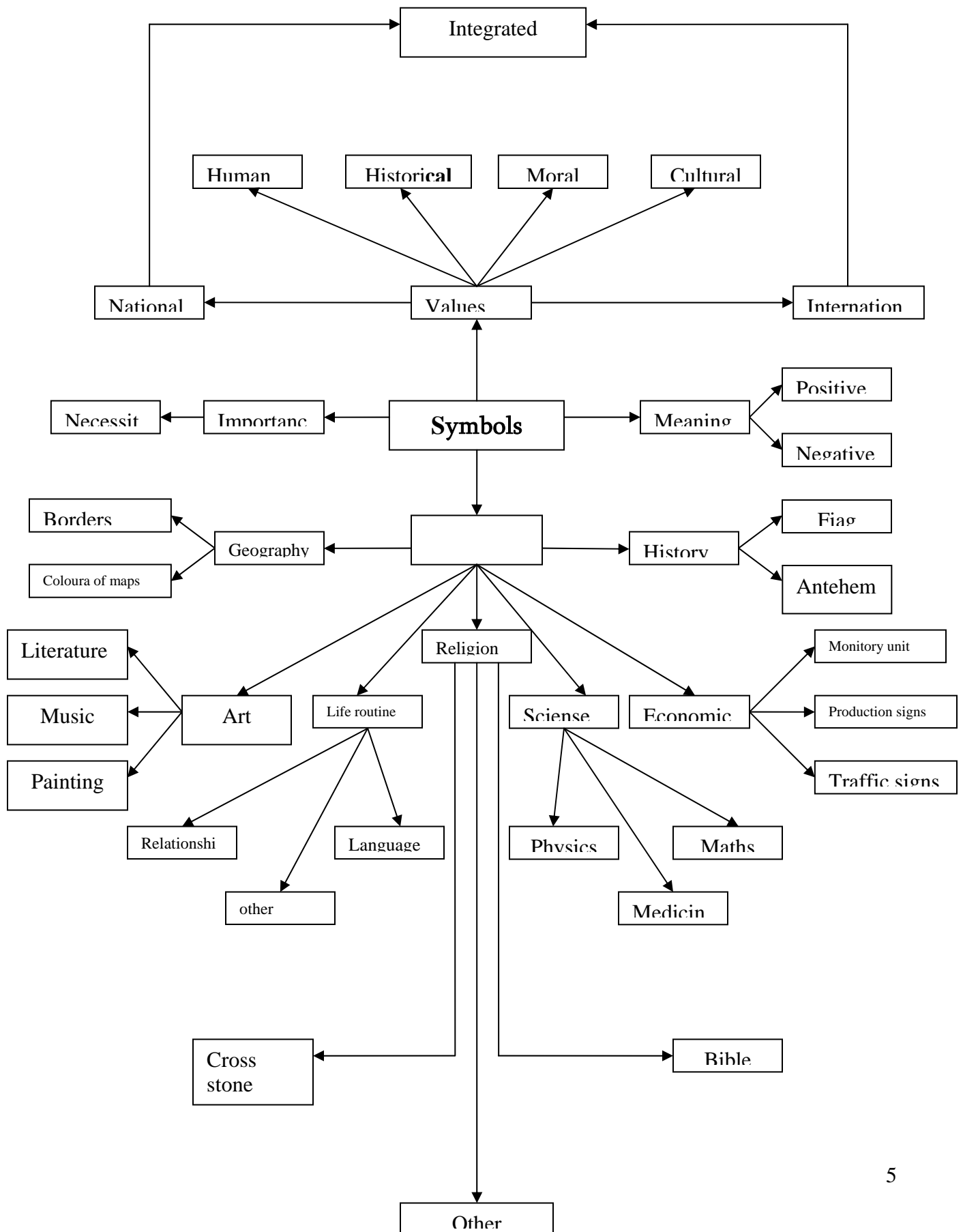
- To create a list of familiar symbols make a list of some of the symbols encountered in everyday life, for example:
 - ✓ a green light tells you it is your turn to go
 - ✓ a bell may signal the beginning of the school day
 - ✓ a gold cross on a necklace suggests the wearer is a Christian
- To examine the use of symbols in everyday life
- To recognize that differing personal and cultural backgrounds may influence their interpretation
- To brainstorm a list of words and phrases used every day but not a part of standard Armenian speech. They may be examples from their own speech, their parents' or from young siblings. The dictionary will help with this or the interviews with their family members/friends/other people will be a great help
- In groups, students compare their interpretations and discuss the differences
- Define their meanings and definitions
- Classify them according to the fields of usage/practice.
- To develop a map of a country (a person) using symbols/signs and explains and define the choice of the symbols/signs.
- Based on the given symbols/signs to name the country (the profession) they are specific to.
- To explain the meaning, origin and history of the symbols/signs.
- To show the development/ transformation of the symbols/signs in the course of history.
- Inspiring role of the symbols/signs in Art (Anthem, (coat of) arms or state emblem, flag, etc.).

- To introduce one's own self through symbols/signs and comment on it. the students will explain the major concepts/notions related to symbols/signs.
- the students will be able to find out the meaning and definition of symbols. Will clarify the role the symbols.
- the students will be able to classify the symbols/signs according the field of usage/practice.
- the students will learn how to create symbols and use them in everyday life.
- the students will learn to comment on/discuss the aesthetic and cultural role of the symbols/signs.
- the students will learn to explain the necessity of the creation of symbols and the cause-effect relationship.

Guiding questions:

- 1) What is a symbol?
- 2) What role does it play?
 - In history
 - In life
 - In economy
 - In regulating human relationships
- 3) What are their areas of application?
- 4) What is the edge of perception of symbols?
- 5) What symbols do you know?
- 6) What role it plays in human beings' perception and how it associates with international aspect.
- 7) Why knowing symbols is essential for society

Map of Major Concepts Within the Thematic Unit



5. Relevance, Rationale, Guiding Questions

Why are this knowledge and these skills important to the students? In democratic world and society symbols identification is essential .at the same time each nation ,and each person has an opportunity of being unique having unique symbols typical only to them.

This type of knowledge enlarges students' perception of world reshaping a new way of thinking, adjusting the criteria and appreciating the values.

They will help the students clearly understand:

- what the symbols mean for the human being;
- one's own rights and responsibilities,
- the society and become active and involved citizens,
- link their own experience to the life of the whole community;
- better understanding of Motherland;
- develop analytical/critical thinking, creative potential and develop an appropriate behavior,
- develop the creativity and implementation skills,
- to show awareness of and respect to the symbols of other countries,
- understanding and appreciating the national and international values.

6.Tasks to be evaluated (Assessment)

- to develop a list of symbols that can be met in the world around us, to define the fields of the usage/practice and the role of those symbols;
- based on the given symbol/sign to define the specific country, culture, monetary unit; name the historical period, the primary source;
- to find a symbol describing one's own self (to describe oneself through symbol language and comment on it);
- to write an essay "Symbols as a key to understanding of the world and one's Ego";
- creation of questionnaires on symbols and comment/discuss each others' in cooperative groups;
- Discussion/debates
- In groups, students compare their interpretations and discuss the differences.

7. Instruction

Timetable of the Thematic Unit

N	Topic of the lesson	Credits/hours ???
1	What is a symbol? What role does it play? Types of symbols.	2
2	Area/field of use of symbols, margins of the understanding	2
3	Money as a symbol	6
4	Symbols as means of preservation and definition of national values	6
5	Symbols and I (the role of symbols in my life)	2

Thematic Unit – Earthquake Zone as a social issue

Authors: Htripsime Khachatryan, Anahit Arnaudyan

Learning Benchmarks, Concepts and General knowledge

- study of the data on major devastating Armenian and worldwide earthquakes ;
- analysis of the major problems existing in the earthquake zone (by fields) and suggestion of problem solving methods;
- study of the Laws, Legal Acts, Governmental Decrees, publications, research, statistical data, surveys and reports on/relating to earthquake zone;
- study and analysis of the attitudes of different political powers, and parties and election programs relating to the earthquake zone;
- observation and analysis of the state policy implementation in the earthquake zone

Knowledge and Skills

Students

- will classify the earthquakes according to the cause of origin;
- will study historical data related to the earthquake zone;
- will develop the seismic security plan of their apartments;
- will study the platforms of the political parties regarding the earthquake zones, the Law on the earthquake zone, governmental decrees, statistical data etc;
- will investigate the labor resources (quantitative and qualitative), unemployment and market relations;
- will discuss environmental issues, resulting from the earthquake;
- will study psychological changes of the people who survived through extreme situation (specifically, Spitak earthquake):

Students will practice the following skills

- will create table, maps, diagrams, of the world major devastating earthquakes;
- will draft the map of 1988 Spitak earthquake areas;
- will analyze those parts of pre-election programs of political parties relating to the earthquake zone;
- will start collecting sayings, proverbs and new colloquials, that appeared after the earthquake

Guiding questions

- what are the reasons of the earthquake?
- what problems appeared there as a result of 1988 Spitak earthquake?
- what state policy is implemented in the earthquake area, according to specific fields?
- Earthquake zone - development zone: what development perspectives do you suggest?

5. Necessity, Concept Map

The study of the topic is of vital importance in the context of the current situation, as it allows investigating a very specific social problem of integration and comprehensive nature. The study of the topic makes it possible to discuss and comment the problem from different perspectives.

Earthquakes are a part of the Caucasus Regional life. They are the results of the massive plates of the Earth’s crust shifting and moving. The geology and science of seismology help us understand “plate tectonics” and earthquakes. However, there are human components that combine with the science and technology around earthquakes which make it a valuable integrated study theme that brings the learner to consider the important of the intersection of the societal and human impact, the technologies to monitor ‘quakes and build safer structures, and the science behind or “*underneath*” the quaking land mass. The purpose of this unit is to focus on the societal aspects while introducing and reinforcing some select elements of the related monitor and engineering technologies and the science which helps the learner appreciate the earthquake zone

It covers the economic development issues of the both Marzes and the review of the ways to solve them by the students will

- develop their intellectual abilities;
- analyzing skills;
- will raise their political participation;
- develop caring attitude to the problems currently present in their communities;
- raise awareness regarding different Laws and legal documents.

Tasks to be assessed

- revealing of the earthquake origins/reasons;
- creation of the chronological table of Armenian and world devastating earthquakes;
- drafting of the 1988 Spitak earthquake area map;
- comparison of pre- and post earthquake economy of the earthquake zone;
- defining the earthquake zone current problems according to the fields (industry agriculture, construction, demographics, social field, environment);
- creation of a “portrait” of old and new Gyumri citizen: revealing of the sources of newly formed values/qualities;
- analysis of the state policy aimed at eliminating the results of 1988 Spitak earthquake: including the Law on Earthquake Zone, political parties’ programs, statistical data, etc.;
- creation of the Earthquake zone social-economic development program per fields.

Necessary Materials and Resources

- RA Law on providing advantages to Shirak and Lori Marzes within the scopes of the Earthquake Zone Comprehensive Reconstruction Program;
- RA Law on Earthquake Zone Reconstruction;
- Secondary school textbooks (history, civic education, geography, economics);
- Statistical data;
- Surveys

Timetable

	Topic of the lesson	hours
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1.	<p>Shirak and Lori Marzes on the crossroads of history</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ area, geographical location and borders of Shirak and Lori Marzes; ■ Historical excursion in both Marzes ■ Natural and historical- architectural monuments ■ Tourism development opportunities in Shirak and Lori Marzes 	4
2.	<p>Origin/reasons of earthquakes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ historical review of devastating Armenian earthquakes ■ 1988 Spitak earthquake. Chronology of the following cases ■ anticipation/forecast of earthquakes: rules of seismic security 	4
3.	<p>Social -economic problems of Earthquake area</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ industry ■ agriculture ■ urban construction ■ unemployment ■ demographics ■ environmental protection 	6
4.	<p>The process of Civil society (political system) formation in the Earthquake area</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ pre-election programs ■ elections ■ laws ■ sociological research ■ specifics/peculiarities of political thinking in the Earthquake area 	6
5.	<p>Psychological results of the earthquake</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ extreme situation: what is it characterized with? ■ change of the earthquake area inhabitant's "psycho portrait": old and new Gyumri ■ Generations memory 	3
6.	<p>Earthquake zone- development zone: Social-economic development perspective of Shirak and Lori Marzes</p>	4

1. Shirak and Lori marzes in the crossroads of of history

- The territory of Shirak and Lori marzes, geographic location, borders
- An excursion into the historical domain of Shirak and Lori regions
- Natural and historical-architectural monuments
- Opportunities for tourism development in Shirak and Lori marzes

Subject- Armenian history, geography

Resources

Textbooks: Historical geography of Armenia, T. Hakobyan,

Bibliography: Shirak region, Nature, Population, Economy, S. G. Manasyan, A.T. Grigoryan, A. H. Potosyan, Yerevan 2003

Lori region – Nature, Population, Economy, S. G. Manasyan, A.T. Grigoryan, G. B. Eghyan, Yerevan, 2003

Encyclopaedic materials

Introduction

Due to their historical past and present, geographical position, characteristics of natural and geographic conditions, Shirak and Lori marzes have played and continue playing an important role in the economic, political and cultural life of the Armenian people among other administrative entities of the Republic of Armenia.

The region (“gavar”) of Shirak was one of the most notable regions of the medieval Armenia and was part of the “Ayrarat” land. Initially, Shirak was the domain of various aristocratic dynasties, and since the end of the 8th century, in addition to many other territories, it was transferred to the House of Bagratunies.

The territory of Lori marz occupies the region of Tashir of Gavar land in the historical Armenia. The latter included the current territories of Tumanyan, Gugark, Tashir and Stepanavan. According to historical sources, as early as in the 8th century B.C., Gugark was part of Urartu Kingdom, and in the 5-4th centuries B.C. it entered into the Yervanduni, Artashisyan and Arshakunyats kingdoms.

In the 9th century, Gugark was ruled by the Armenian House of Bagratunies. Gurgen (Kyurike), the son of the king Ashot G Voghormats, expanded the territory by joining a range of neighboring regions to Tashir and founded the kingdom of Gugark.

The availability of some shallow information about both regions before their movement into the domain of the Bagratunies can be explained by the development of the economic and cultural life of those regions in that period of time. It will give more opportunities for students to collect necessary materials.

The course of the class

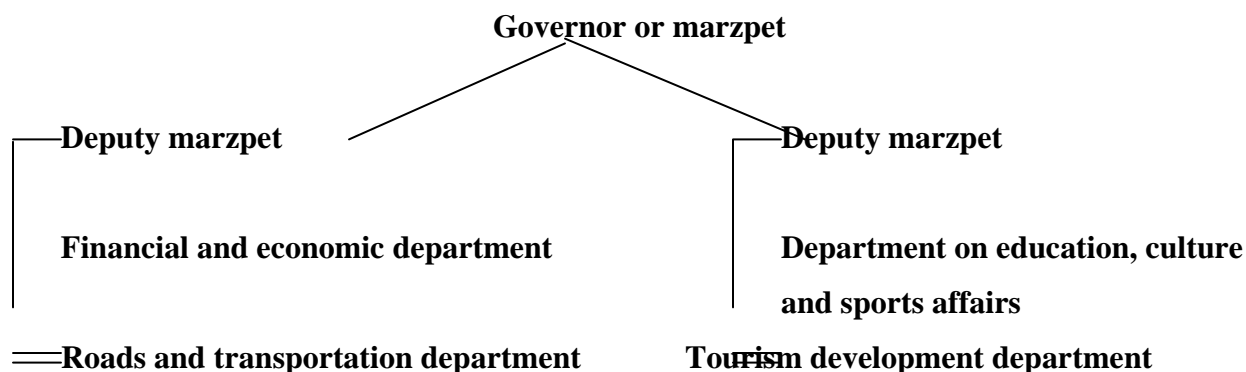
Orientation

The instructor introduces the historical overview of both marzes before the Bagratunies, then suggests that students study the important historical and cultural events taken place in the regions in the period of the Bagratunies, then continue the study of historical events up to the current administrative division of the Republic of Armenia putting the emphasis on the territorial and administrative changes of the marzes.

Research

The classes divide into two parts which are conditionally named as Shirak and Lori “marzes”. Marzes in their turn divide into groups which can be referred to as “communities” or professional committees. The teacher is assigned to prepare an informative PR leaflet about

each marz intended for tourists. The groups work in committees created based on the following structure of the marz administration which is given below:



Or

Students can work in the following groups:

Historians- this group is assigned to collect information about important historical events of their region and to prepare an events timetable.

Geographer- the territory of the marz, geographic location, borders, availability of a map, natural monuments.

Ethnologist-architects group- historical architectural monuments, assessment of economic and tourism opportunities /assessment of hotels, restaurants, transportation and roads/

designer-operators-brochure design

tour guide-presentation of the brochure

Assessment

PR Leaflet Assessment Rubric

	Evaluation components	Evaluation criteria	Sum, units
1.	Comprehensiveness of a content	5 4 3 2 1	
2.	Appropriateness of a design and taste	5 4 3 2 1	
3.	Applicability	5 4 3 2 1	

4.	Interesting and targeted information	5 4 3 2 1	
5.	Focused direction	5 4 3 2 1	
6.	Logical cohesion of information	5 4 3 2 1	
7.	Correct grammar and style of the written information	5 4 3 2 1	

Summary

Organization of a tour to the marz whose PR booklet won most of the points.

2. CLASS TOPIC – Causes of earthquakes (by their types). History of disastrous earthquakes

Objectives of the topic research

- To study the causes of earthquakes
- To prepare a historical overview from the history of the Armenian and world earthquakes
- To analyze the characteristic features of the 1988 Spitak earthquake
- To learn some rules of seismic safety and earthquake prediction

Type of Work

Students work in small Cooperative groups

1. “Seismologists”
2. “Historians”
3. “Geographers”
4. “Staff of the Department of Emergency Situations ”

Major direction of activities performed by working groups

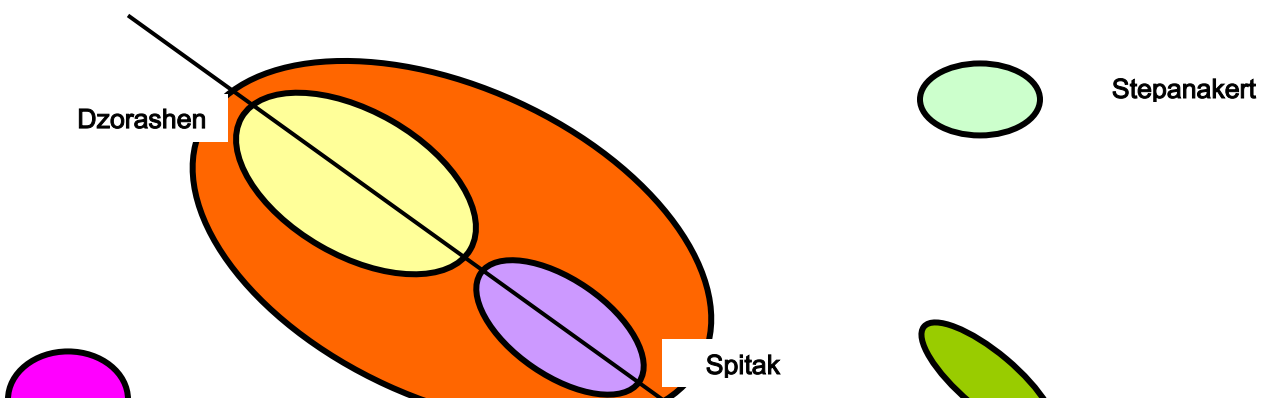
1. Preparation of an appropriate action plan or a draft for a group
2. Selection and study of appropriate materials
3. Data collection
4. Digesting, analysis
5. Summary
6. Presentation

The Attachment given below presents the appropriate materials which will help the working groups to develop their own action plans or schemes. According to the plan, it is necessary to differentiate responsibilities and the scope of work of each group member which will be aimed at enriching the information brought below.

Assignments Subject to Evaluation

1. Upon the presentation of the studied material by the groups to the whole class, it is suggested testing the level of retained knowledge by students through the simulation games.
 - As a second option of the test assignment, it is possible to administer the test based on the photos describing the safety regulations. These can be distributed either by an instructor or students may be assigned to create their own pictures based on the material presented in the attachment which will demonstrate some of the rules.
2. Mapping of the Spitak earthquake: the following scheme is presented as a guideline

EARTHQUAKE SCHEME



3. Socio-economic problems of the earthquake zone:

- Industry
- Agriculture
- Demography
- Unemployment
- Emigration
- Urban construction
- Environmental protection

Introduction

The collapse of the Soviet Union and the subsequent changes in the political and socio-economic situation followed by the geopolitical tensions dominating in the Southern Caucasus region over the last ten-twelve years have had an adverse impact on the economic system of Armenia. This dramatic situation is more vividly expressed in the regions of Shirak and Lori because of the consequences of the disastrous Spitak earthquake.

Course of the lesson

Orientation

The instructor offers the students to recall and list of major industrial enterprises operating in Lori and Shirak marzes before the earthquake, then list the current enterprises.

Furthermore, instructor adds more information to the given data and generally presents the

economic role of those regions before the earthquake, mentioning possible development directions.

Research

The class divides into groups, each of which is assigned to study certain branch of industry before and after the earthquake /based on those mentioned in the class/ with the objective of making a comparison table. Besides, each group prepares a data sheet for both marzes on the same industry branch.

Students are assigned to study the abovementioned studies, which contain a comprehensive data concerning each industry area. The objective of students is to reveal the data on their assigned field of industry and outline major issues pertaining to the given area.

Assessment

Following capabilities demonstrated by the students will be evaluated:

- The correspondence of the tables, other statistical information taken from the Attachment or other sources to the given field of industry.
- An ability to provide objective explanations of the given material
- An ability to make conclusions out of explanations, i.e. an ability to formulate issues

Summary

Presentation of various field tables and issues to the class

The teacher suggests that students make notes or ask questions to the speakers to prepare themselves for the elaboration of the socio-economic development plan for both regions.

4. Psychological consequences of the disaster:

- Emergency situation: how is it characterized?
- Changes in the population make-up of the disaster area: Old and New Gyumri
- Memory of generations

Introduction

Emergency situations happen when regular development norms of the society cease to function and mismanagement and feeling of disaster come to dominate. It is the time of social, political, economic, cultural, psychological, moral shocks, upheavals, imbalance, and instability.

In the crises situations when social links and relations are disrupted and changed, institutions destroyed, a human being loses his values, a sense of belongingness to the society and the faith in the next day giving birth to the psychological discomfort. He is influenced by spontaneous, instant factors, which precondition the motivations of an individual's behavior. In emergency situations, all the values are subordinate to the main overwhelming objective, namely protection of life. In this case, the individual behavior is guided not so much by the value system but rather by the instinctive survival objectives.

/explanations can be brought/.

The quantitative imbalance is not the only consequence of the earthquake. The moral stress and pain come to be extremely strong. The loss of relatives brought about a psychological shock, and even today Gyumri and other towns have not recovered from pain of losses. The impact of the earthquake was coupled with the collapse of the Soviet Union with all its adverse consequences including wide-spread unemployment, loss of professional labor force, emigration, and feeling of mistrust, abandonment, and solitude.

Orientation

After the teacher's introduction, the students through the brainstorming write on the blackboard the behavioral features that people demonstrate in emergency situations.

On the second side of the blackboard they write values, inclinations and levels which come into surface within one-two years after emergency situations. On the third part, one should put values or inclinations which are expressed nowadays, a decade after the earthquake.

Research

As a final assignment on this topic, the students are suggested to create the "portrait" of an old and new Gyumri resident. The students are required to draft an evolutionary scheme of the above-mentioned values and inclinations. Then, based on these schemes, the students will survey the adults in order to shape up the picture of a pre- and post-earthquake citizen of Gyumri (for example). It can be in the form of a picture or a poem, novel, song, dramatic presentation.

Assignment Subject to Evaluation

During the "portrait" presentation, students ask questions to a presenting group. Questions are aimed at identifying how the presenter would explain the origin of this or that quality (qualities which have been acquired by a given individual not only due to the earthquake but also as a result of following major events): collapse of the Soviet Union, Karabagh war, independence, economic crises, emigration, impact of globalization and more).

5. Formation of a Civil Society in the Earthquake Zone

- Pre-election programs
- Elections
- laws
- sociological studies
- peculiarities of a civic mentality in the earthquake zone

Introduction

The contemporary democratic reforms in Armenia are a difficult and a many-fold process. One of their major directions focuses on the development of the civil society. This process is particularly hampered in the earthquake zone connected with the socio-economic, psychological and other factors.

In this respect, it is interesting to study and analyze the state policy on the development of the earthquake zone. The students will study legal documents, election platforms and programs of parties related to the earthquake zone as well as election processes.

The study of this topic will help the students to shape their civic participation in order to make conscious choices in the future as voters thus participating in the governance of the country.

Course of the class

Orientation in the context of civic education

At the beginning of the class, the teacher, with input from the students, will address the components of a civil society (political, economic, social, legal, moral) more broadly focusing on a political social aspects of a civil society.

Research the texts of election programs declared by parties and alliances: meetings with the party representatives or deputies with the objective of clarifying the programs or issues raised by them in the earthquake zone.

Study of the legal framework

While studying laws, the students highlight the laws which are not enforced. Formulation of questions which will be asked to the state representatives during meetings. Make notes of responses.

Study the sociological surveys: before and after the elections putting the emphasis on the results demonstrated by the earthquake zone constituencies: make comparisons. **Study the social component in the civil society:** Its positioning in the earthquake zone, joint consideration of economic and psychological factors existing in the earthquake zone which have been tackled during previous lessons. It will allow understanding the peculiarities of the civic mentality in both marzes.

Assignment to be evaluated

The simulation game to play local and parliamentary elections.

6. Disaster Zone-Development Zone: Perspectives of the Socio-Economic Development of Shirak and Lori Regions.

This lesson has a summarizing importance. Students will summarize the studied material, tables, information received from the state officials during question and answer meetings, and draft the socio-economic development plan for their marz based on the sample given below.

The class divides into two parts /Shirak and Lori/.

Socio-Economic Development Plan Model

- Introduction /general information about the marz/
- Industrial field
- Agriculture
- Transportation
- Urban construction
 - Residential construction
 - School construction
- Service
 - tourism
- Nature and environmental protection
- Culture and sports
- Perspectives of the socio-economic development (predictions)

Assessment should be made based on the following abilities displayed by the students

- How well is the information presented in the development plan systemized
- How well students were able to maintain the logic between the presented information, analysis, clarified issues and recommended development perspectives
Comprehensive approach of recommendations to the solution of issues
- Real value of recommendations concerning the solution of issues

- Real significance of development perspectives

UNIT OUTLINE

1. Unit Topic	Conflict Management
Subject group	Psychology, History, Sociology, Economics
Level	Grade - 9

2. Essential/Enduring Understanding

Students will understand that ...

- Conflicts are inevitable in our everyday life
- Conflicts have important role and meaning in democratic societies and interpersonal relationships
- Human needs, wants, values, goals and interests are the reasons of conflicts
- Conflicts have both positive and negative impact on society and person's life
- People conduct differently in conflict situations
- There are different ways of conflict management
- Even simple and small conflicts become major and difficult to resolve when they are defined in a win-lose way. Even major and difficult conflicts become resolvable when they are defined as problems to be solved.
- The role of mediator is very important in conflict management.

3. Learning Benchmarks (Specific Concepts and General Knowledge)

- Conflict negative group
- Conflict positive group
- Conflict of interests

- Compromise
- Cooperation
- Dilemma of trust
- Distributive, win-lose negotiations
- Integrative, problem-solving negotiations
- Mediation
- Negotiation
- Steps of integrative negotiation

4. Knowledge and skills

- Students will know ...
 - What is conflict.
 - Constructive and destructive conflicts
 - Conflict management strategies (forcing, withdrawal, smoothing, compromising, problem solving)
 - Steps of negotiating procedure
 - Features of Intergroup conflicts
 - Social categorization theory
 - Social identity theory

- Students will be able to ...
 - Develop negotiation skills
 - Develop refusal skills – saying “no” when something is not negotiable.
 - Solve problems by engaging in negotiations
 - Develop communication skills by working in small groups
 - Develop social skills (perspective taking, empathy) by role reversal exercise

- Group processing (analyzing effectiveness of group work) by discussing group work procedure
- Use graphic organizers to compare and contrast, analyze data
- Evaluate and interpret pros and cons of conflicts
- Role-play conflict situations
- Develop a well-reasoned hypothesis on causes and effects of conflicts
- Compare and contrast integrative and distributive negotiation strategies
- Use cooperative learning skills in conflict resolution

5. Relevance, Rationale, Guiding Questions

Relevance, Rationale

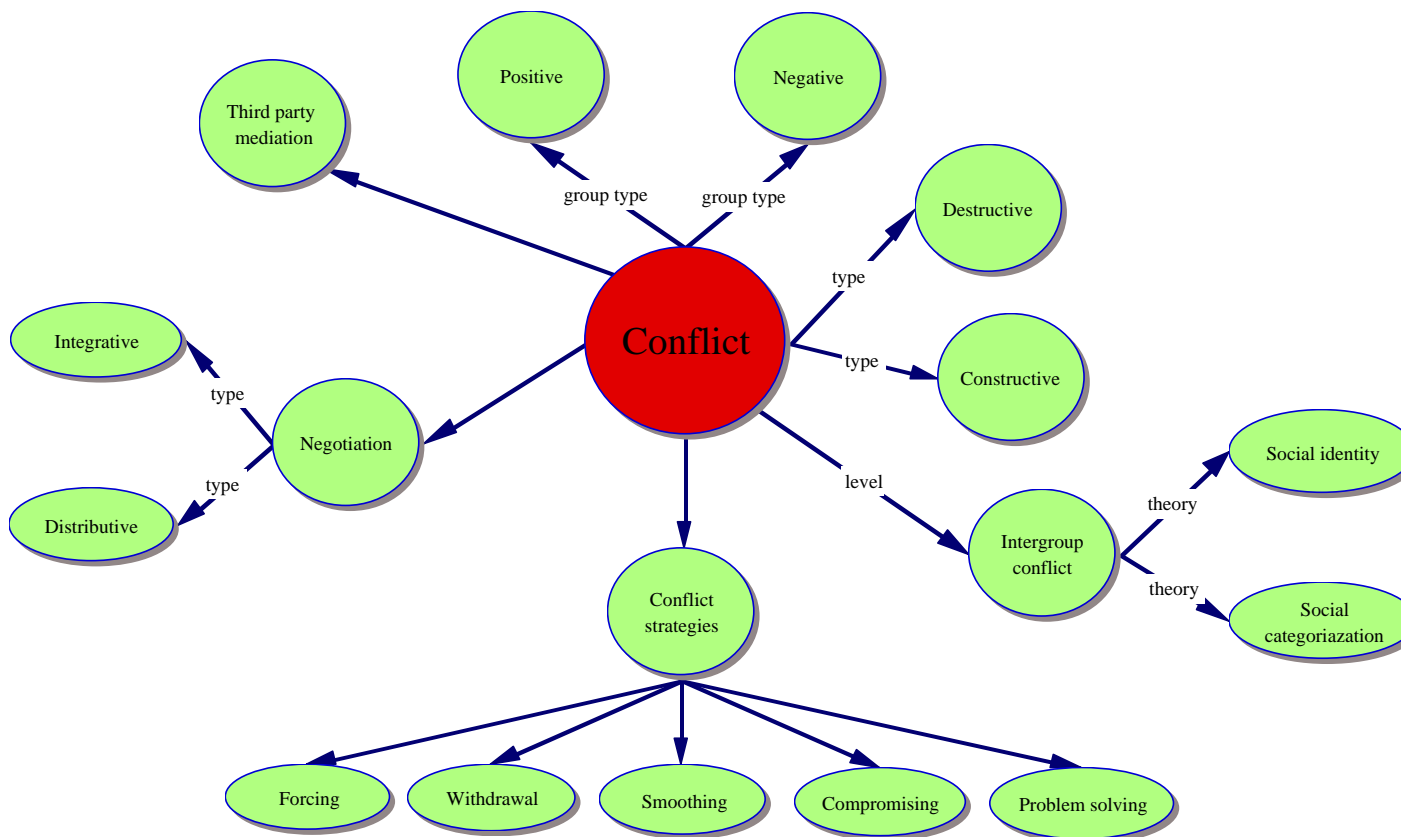
In democratic societies conflicts are inevitable. Based on value of freedom people have a chance of being unique individuals. The probability of conflicts are higher in societies where people can be individuals. As conflicts are frequent in our lives students need to know about the essence of conflicts. But the most important thing is conflict management skills which are the main aims of this unit. Having conflict management skills students will act effectively as citizens and use conflicts in constructive way. The unit is important because it stresses not on passive knowledge about conflicts but on engaging students in resolving interpersonal, intergroup conflicts. This will help students to feel themselves conflict situations and find solutions. Students will develop negotiating skills which are one of our keys to success in life.

Thus the unit will help students to gain lifelong knowledge, skills and values.

Guiding questions

- What kind of conflicts do you know?
- Why conflicts happen? Should we have a society without conflicts?
- How you act in conflicts?
- What human characteristics cause conflicts?
- How are different conflict negative and positive groups?
- What are the differences between integrative and distributive negotiation strategies?
- How is integrative negotiation procedure taking place?
- What are the specifics of intergroup conflict?
- On what theoretical basis are grounded intergroup conflicts?
- What are the guidelines that mediator needs to keep?

Concept map



6. Assessment

- Questionnaire -How you act in Conflicts
- Test on intergroup conflict theories
- Quiz on behavior in conflict situation
- Simulation on negotiation types
- Role play on conflict strategies

7. Instruction

Timetable of the Thematic Unit

	Topic of the lesson	
1.	What is conflict ? The causes of conflicts. Conflict positive and conflict negative groups. Constructive and Destructive conflicts (<i>Instructional methods:</i> Lecture, STAD-Student Team Achievement Division)	2 hour
2.	Conflict strategies. Forcing, withdrawal, smoothing, compromising, problem solving (<i>Instructional methods:</i> Small group work, Case study, Discussion)	3
3.	The nature of negotiations. Types of negotiations. Integrative negotiations. Integrative negotiation steps. (<i>Instructional methods:</i> Small group	4

	work, Dilemmas, Case study, Negotiating exercise on profit-lose situation)	
4.	Intergroup conflict. Thoeries on intergroup conflict (<i>Instructional methods:</i> Small group work, Case study, Discussion)	2
5.	Third-party mediation	1

Thematic Unit Planning Map

Thematic unit:	Business Ethics
Type of integration	Inter-subject integration, Multidisciplinary
Class	9 th grade
Author:	Silva Petrosyan
Primary subject group:	Ethics, Economics, and Civic education.
Secondary subject group:	Literature, History, and Life skills, State and Law, Psychology, Environmental studies.

2. Essential (Enduring) Understandings

Students will be able to answer the these key questions

- 1) What are ethics?
- 2) Do people need ethics today?
- 3) What is business? (I terms of business: employers and employees, entrepreneurs and workers, businessmen, corporations, companies etc.)
- 4) What are the rights of consumers and obligations of entrepreneurship?
- 5) What are common ethical dilemmas that arise during business relationships

Master a series of broad concepts related to:

- 6) Understanding the concept of ethical values and why ethics is important in business world?
- 7) Understanding the notion of “business” and how it’s important in society.
- 8) Defining a set ethical values for Armenian business culture.
- 9) how ethics is important in a society
- 10) How business and even consumers must be responsible for environment (nature), protecting it from negative consequences of business enterprises.
- 11) Interpret, and evaluate sources and examples of citizens’ rights and responsibilities.

3. Learning Benchmarks (specific concepts and general knowledge) –

- 1) Students will identify and analyze the problem of business ethics discussing certain situations and possible solutions for moral dilemmas emerging during economical relations.

- 2) Students will be able to state ethical values that are very important for newly emerging Armenian free entrepreneurship.
- 3) Students will identify good and bad impact of entrepreneurship on environment.
- 4) Application of knowledge about consumers' rights and business obligations in real life situations, i.e. students will be able to respond to case situations (simulations) related to consumers' rights and business ethics

4. Specific Knowledge and Skills

_____ Students will define or explain the following:

- The major concepts/notions related to ethics including:
 - Ethical value
 - Ethical norm
 - Ethical dilemma
- Businessmen, entrepreneurs, employers
- Workers, consumers
- Rights of consumers
- Obligations of entrepreneurship
- Laws of RA about business and rights of consumers
- The role of ethical values in the society.
- Examples of negative impact of economical activities on environment.
- Examples of fight for consumer rights (Ralf Nader, etc.)

Develop the following skills:

- Identify and use facts about real life ethical dilemmas that arise in business relationships to explain and define terms and concepts within the unit activities.
- The ability to apply ethics to case study examples related to consumer situations.
- The ability to apply ethics to case study examples related to business situations.
- Relate ethical values with real life business situations.
- Comment on/discuss the importance of defending consumer rights and making businesses to follow their obligations, using the concepts and knowledge gained through this unit
- Explain and discuss the necessity of business ethics for keeping environment clean.
- Skills to apply all learned material in real life situations and to defend their own rights as consumers.

- Practice forms of civic discussion and participation consistent with the ideals of citizens in a democratic republic.

5. Relevance, Rationale, Guiding Questions, & Concept Map

Relevance & Rationale for this Unit (Significance)

Unit on Business Ethics is very important as the knowledge and skills gained studying this unit will help students clearly understand that ethics is very important not only in many different spheres of life, but especially in business sphere. As now, in XXI century businesses can have huge sizes and can produce goods for thousands of people, thus they should be very careful with products not to harm people, especially children. Students will understand how economical relationships impact the whole society using advertisement, promotion of products and different techniques. They will understand the need of moral regulation for advertisements as through mass media they influence especially teenager's style of thinking. So society should think about moral problems of free entrepreneurship. Students will realize also the significance of ethical norms for businesses dealing with environment, they will link their own experience to the life of whole community and understand how clean and safe environment is important for present and future generations and how the pursue of profit without moral or legal laws can damage the environment.

Finally, students will learn that state defends society from bad impact of economical activity by means of laws, regulations and economical courts.

This unit will help students to develop analytical/critical thinking, creative potential and develop an appropriate behavior. Learning the unit students will be aware of their rights as consumers and can participate in public debates related to this problem.

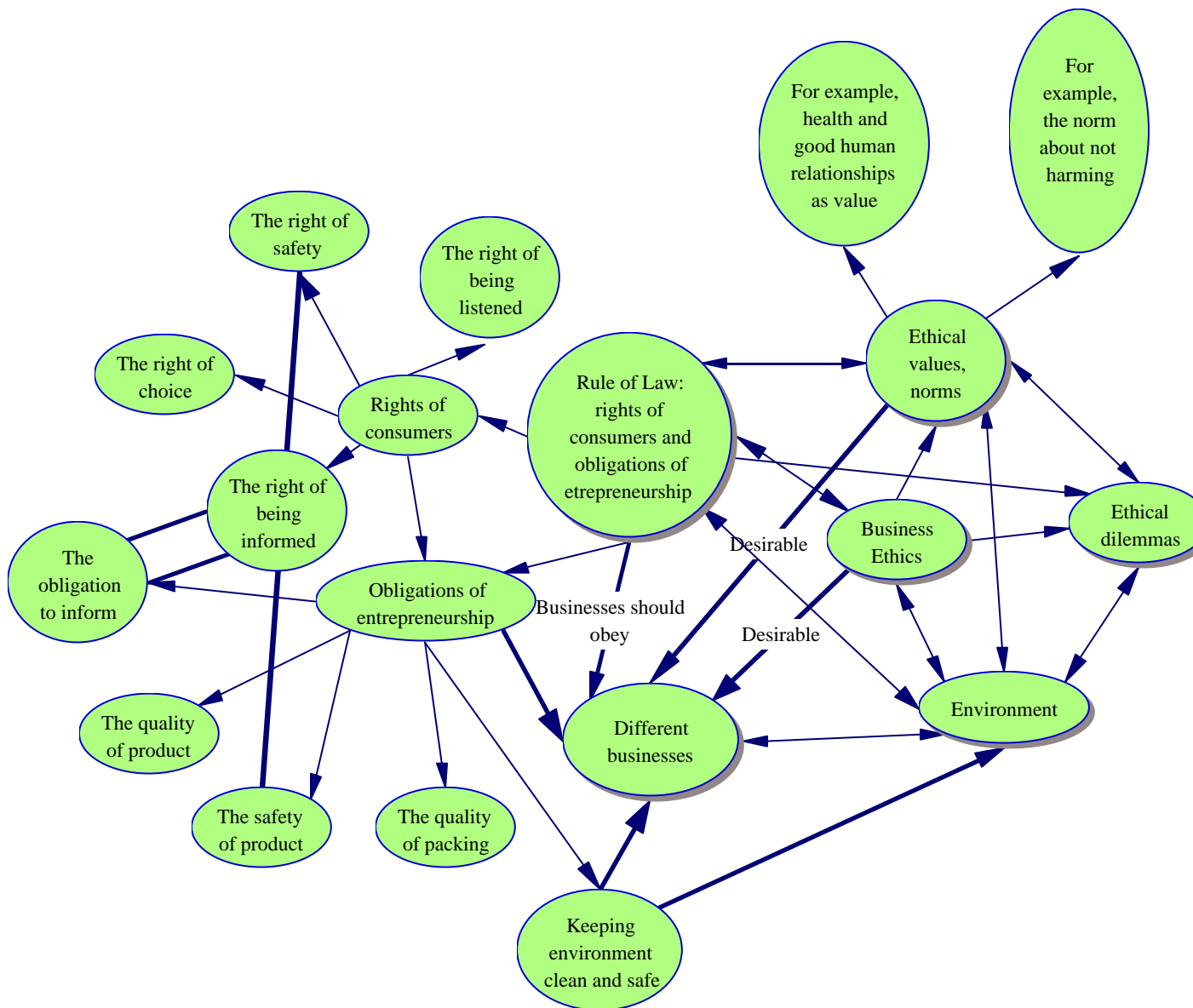
Guiding questions for ensuring understanding (benchmarks):

The following questions will serve to guide the students through the events within this unit, keeping them attentive to the enduring understandings, benchmarks, knowledge, and content that is essential to this unit.

- 1) What is ethics? Can you mention one issue where ethical problem is arising?
- 2) What is business? How businessmen organize new businesses?
- 3) How would you describe ethical values as
 - i) a consumer?
 - ii) as a business person
- 4) How do individual ethics benefit society?
- 5) Should businessmen obey ethical norms? Why?
- 6) Are ethical norms enough? Why?
- 7) Do you know the laws that regulate economical relationships?
- 8) What are responsibilities of businesses?

- 9) What are rights of consumers?
- 10) Do we need to protect environment from bad impact of entrepreneurship? How we can do it?.

Map of Major Concepts Educated Within the Thematic Unit



6. Assessment Tasks

- to examine examples from real life situations and point out ethical issues and values that are important in each of them;
- do define what is entrepreneurship, which types of it exist and if everybody can be entrepreneur.
- to examine case studies and explain what kind of ethical dilemmas exist in particular cases. to give some ways to solve the problem.
- to write an essay “If I were a businessmen”.
- Discussion/debates about ethical dilemmas that arise in relations of employers and employees, secrets of business and common good etc.
- to make questionnaires and to interview people about the positive and negative impact of entrepreneurship, analyze data and draw some references.
- to point out existing problems in their community natural environment that are results of economical activity. Try to find solutions that are acceptable for both sides.

Summary:

Timetable of the Thematic Unit

	Topic of the Learning Event	Instructional hours (number of lessons)
1	What is ethics? Do people need ethics today?	1
2	What is business? How is constructed society in terms of business: employers and employees, entrepreneurs and workers, businessmen, corporations, companies etc?	1
3	Why ethics is important in business world? Rights of consumers and obligations of entrepreneurship.	4
4	Which kind of ethical dilemmas can arise during business relationships?	5
6	Ethical values in newly emerging Armenian free entrepreneurship.	2

7	Environment and ethics of business....	4
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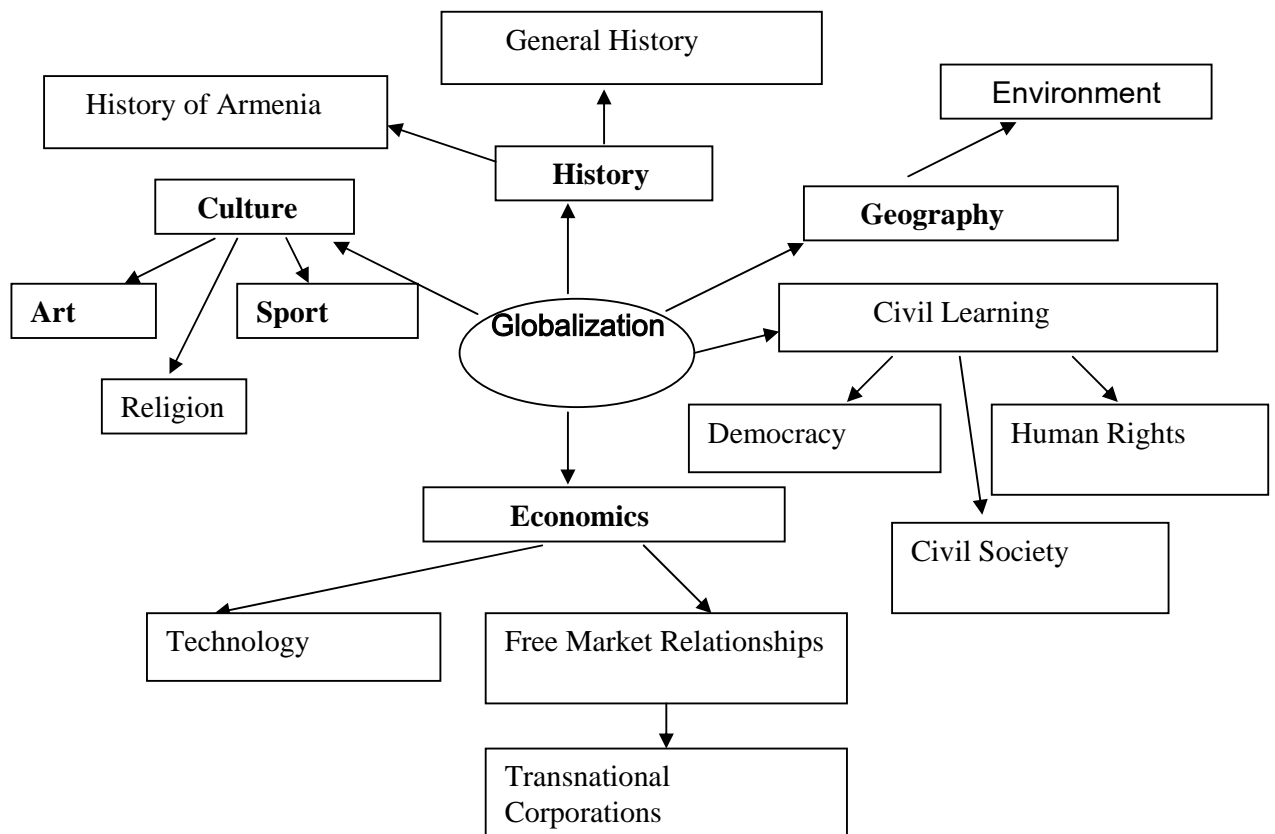
Class 10-th

The Theme of the Unit – Globalization and Armenia

The results of the studies

- General idea about the phenomenon of Globalization
- Comprehension and analysis of the phenomenon of Globalization
- Awareness of the impact of the globalization on the economic, political and cultural life in Armenia

Subjects



Integrated course

Subject group- History, Geography, Economics, Civil Learning and Culture

Lesson Planning

10-th class 2-nd term

Main Theme – Globalization and Armenia

Working out of Themes

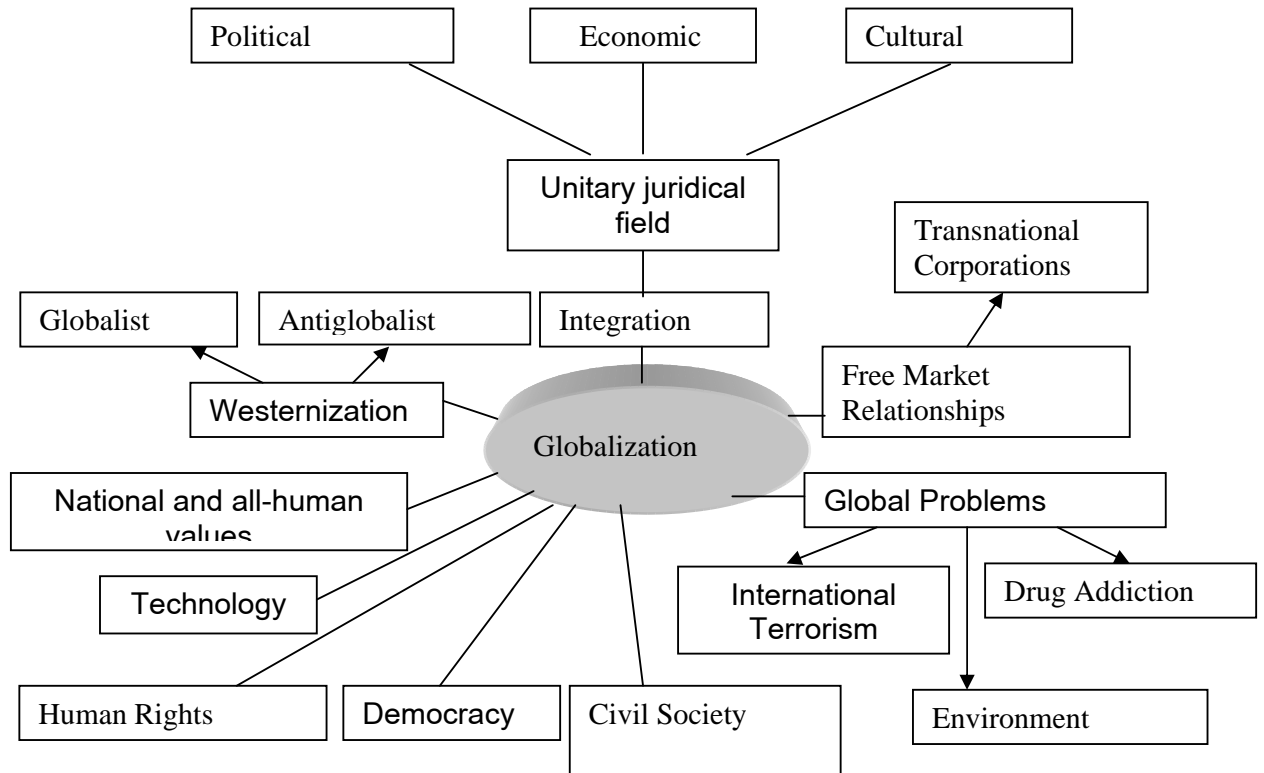
1. The Essence of Globalization
2. The main manifestations of Globalization
3. Outcomes of Globalization (political, economic, cultural)
4. Globalization and Armenia
5. Globalization and I

Criteria

- Discovering the essence of globalization as a continuing process.
- Analysis and revealing of the factors conditioning globalization.
- Analysis of the main manifestations of globalization.
- Revealing and analysis of causative-resulting connections of globalization.
- Comparing analysis of the outcomes of globalization according to a degree of countries' development
- Making more precise the system of national values, discovering of globalization manifestations on the Republic of Armenia.
- Revealing and analysis of globalization impacts on the formation of a person.

Chart of notions

#



Main notions

Globalization

Integration

Free Market Relationships

Transnational Corporations

Westernization

Antiglobalists

Unitary juridical field, uniform criteria

Human Rights

Democracy

Civil Society

Technology

International Terrorism

Losers, winners

Landmark questions

1. What does Globalization mean? Which are the factors conditioning the origin of that phenomenon? Which are the main manifestations of globalization?
2. What outcomes does globalization have?
 - a. developed industrial
 - b. feebly developed
 - c. for oriental countries
3. What kind of position will Armenia adopt in the epoch of Globalization?
4. What global problems have mankind faced? What methods and ways can you name to solve them?
5. How does Globalization reflect on the formation of a contemporary young person?

Landmarks

- Comprehend the essence of Globalization
- Comprehend factors conditioning Globalization
- Analyze manifestations of globalization according to spheres(from historical, political, economic and cultural standpoints)
- To draw a chart. The positive and negative sides of globalization outcomes on Armenia.
- To be able to estimate the globalization impact on a person's formation

Results or objectives of studies

Pupils

- ✓ will explain and comment on the essence of globalization
- ✓ will discover the factors conditioning globalization
- ✓ will research the globalization manifestations and then locate it in the sample of Armenia
- ✓ will draw a chart where they will mark the globalization factors and outcomes on Armenia according to spheres
- ✓ will carry out comparative analysis marking the impacts of globalization according to a degree of countries' development
- ✓ will discuss the globalization impacts on a person's formation
- ✓ will make more precise the system of national values.

Skills

- To analyze the phenomenon of "globalization" in the form of historical survey.
- Analysis of national culture and traditions
- Analysis of contemporary essence of globalization.
- To comment on the role of transnational corporations in the process of globalization.
- To comment on the causative-resulting links of the abolition of economic barrier between countries.
- To analyze the perspectives of the Republic of Armenia in the terms of globalization, to discuss the policy of the R.A from this viewpoint.
- To explain the outcomes of globalization in the form of comparative analysis according to an economic degree of countries' development.
- To estimate the reasons of antiglobalist movement.
- Spell out the main problems of globalization which mankind are facing, to discuss the ways and methods of solving them.
- To comment on the uniform criteria and notion of unitary field.
- To draw up a system of national values.
- Comparison of national and all-human values.
- To discover the globalization impact on day-to-day life.

Importance

- To be able to explain the essence and significance of globalization as a contemporary process, in order to estimate the role of the Republic of Armenia in the given process.
- Analyzing the positive and negative outcomes of globalization on Armenia to be able to find the ways to have a more profitable position in this process.
- To be able to estimate national and all-human values in order not to lose the national and accept the best all-human experience.
- To attract attention on the phenomenon of pop culture trying to direct pupils towards lofty culture.

Assessment

- ✓ tests
- ✓ headings
- ✓ folders
- ✓ presentation of drafts

Timetable for the whole thematic unit

	Lesson theme	Quantity of hours
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ The essence of globalization (an excursion into historical domain with the aim of discovering similar phenomena, for instance, Hellenic epoch, creation of empires, spreading of religions etc.)▪ Creation of one-centered world: objectives of globalization, factors conditioning that▪ Elements of globalization (free market relationships, democratization of society, formation of civil society, human rights, inculcation of informative and communicative	3 hours

	technologies as a means of creating global society etc.)	
2	<p>Globalization and global problems</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Antiglobalists, international terrorism, drug addiction, protection of environment 	2 hours
	<p>Globalization and Culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cultural equation. Why does it give birth to problems? ▪ Armenian cultural values ▪ Spreading of pop culture ▪ Antagonism of traditional and contemporary ▪ Change of women's traditional role ▪ Sport as an element of spreading global culture 	
	<p>I and Globalization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Globalization in day-to-day life • Globalization in mode of life • Uniformity of clothes, food and dwellings 	2 hours

Մասնագիտական համառոտ բառարան

academic controversy	ակադեմիական հակակարծություն
Accountability	պատասխանատու, հաշվետու գործունեություն
Achievement tests-	առաջադիմության ստուգում
active learning	ակտիվ, գործուն ուսումնառություն
Alignment	համապատասխանություն, ներդաշնակում
alternative assessment	այլընտրանքային գնահատում
Analyzing primary and secondary sources	սկզբնաղբյուրների եւ երկրորդային աղբյուրների վերլուծություն
aptitude tests	ընդհանուր ունակության, կարողության ստուգում
Artifact	արտիֆակտ, պատմա-մշակութային նմուշ, արհեստավաստ
assessment	գնահատում
authentic assessment	բուն, փաստացի գնահատում
authentic learning	բուն ուսումնառություն
Basic skills	տարրական, հիմնական հմտություններ
Behavior sciences	վարքը ուսումնասիրող գիտություններ /բիհեյվորիստական գիտություններ/
Beliefs	հավատք, համոզմունք
benchmark	ուղենիշ, նշաձող
Benefits	օգուտ, շահ, առավելություն
Bias	հակում, կանխակալ կարծիք
character education	կերպար, բնավորություն ձեւավորող կրթություն
Citizenship	քաղաքացիություն
Citizenship education	քաղաքացու կրթություն
Civic competence	քաղաքացիական բանիմացություն
Civic virtue	քաղաքացիական առաքինություն
clasroom management	դասարանավարություն
Cognitive	իմացական
Comparing and contrasting	համեմատություն եւ հակադրություն
Competence	բանիմացություն, գործիմացություն
Complementarism	լրացչություն
Concept	հասկացություն, հայեցակարգ
Conflict	հակամարտություն

Consensus	համաձայնություն, ներդաշնակություն
cooperative learning	համագործակցային ուսումնառություն
core	առանցքային, հիմնական
criterion-referenced test	չափանիշի վրա հիմնված ստուգում
Cultural transmission	մշակույթի փոխանցում
Decision making-	որոշումների կայացում
Decision matrix	որոշումների գրաֆիկ, աղյուսակ
Democratic education	ժողովրդավարական կրթություն
democratic purpose of education	կրթության ժողովրդավարական նպատակ
Dimension	հարթություն
Discovery	բացահայտում, հայտնաբերում, հայտնագործում
Distinguishing fact and opinion	փաստի եւ կարծիքի տարբերակում
Drawing inference and conclusion	հետևություն և եզրահանգում անել
Empathy	ապրումակցում /էմպատիա/
experiential education	կենսափորձի վրա հիմնված կրթություն
Expository	բացատրական
formative test	ընթացիկ ստուգում
Generalization	ընդհանրացում
Graphic Organizer	համակարգող գծապատկեր
Holism	ամբողջապաշտություն
Humanities	հումանիտար գիտություններ
Identifying cause and effect	պատճառահետևանքային կապի պարզում
Identifying main ideas	նյութի հիմնական գաղափարների պարզում
Inculcation	ներշնչում
Indoctrination	կաղապարայնացում
Inferential reasoning	հետևությունների կշռադատում
Inquiry	հետազոտություն
Integrated Curriculum	Ինտեգրված ուսումնական ծրագիր
Integrative view to the world	միասնական հայացք առ աշխարհ
Intellectual education	ինտելեկտուալ կրթություն
interactive learning	փոխներգործուն ուսումնառություն
interdisciplinary curriculum	միջառարկայական ուսումնական ծրագիր
Issues-cantered education	հարցակենտրոն ուսուցում

Life adjustment	պատրաստում կյանքին
Making valid generalizations	հիմնավոր, վավերական ընդհանրացումների կատարում
master	յուրացնել
measurement error	չափման սխալ
metacognition	մետահմացություն
Moral reasoning	բարոյական կշռադատում
Multidisciplinary	բազմառարկայական
norm-referenced test	վարքանիշի վրա հիմնված ստուգում
Outcome	արդյունք, վերջնարդյունք
paideia	պայդեյա, կրթական համակարգ (հուն.)
performance assessment	դրսևորման, կատարողականության, ներկայացման գնահատում
performance task	դրսևորումը գնահատող առաջադրանք
Personal education	անձի կրթություն
Plurality	բազմակարծություն
portfolio	ուսումնական թղթապանակ
Positivism	պոզիտիվիզմ
problem-based learning	խնդրակենտրոն ուսումնառություն
project method	նախագծերի մեթոդ
Psychomotor-	հոգեշարժողական
Qualitative/Quantitative	որակական/քանակական
rationale	հիմնավորում
Relativity of social knowledge	հասարակության մասին գիտելիքի հարաբերականությունը
reliability of assessment	արժանահավատություն, հուսալիություն
school climate	դպրոցի մթնոլորտ
selected response	ընտրովի պատասխան
Sequencing	հաջորդայնացում
Single-discipline	միառարկայական
Social action	Հասարակական գործողություն
Social and emotional learning-(SEL)	դասեր, որոնք հնարավորություն կտան աշակերտին սովորել վերահսկել իր իսկ զգացումները նաշխատել և խաղալ մյուսների հետ
Social education	հասարակական կրթություն
Social sciences	Հասարակական գիտություններ
Social studies	Հասարակագիտություն
standard	չափորոշիչ
standardized testing	չափորոշիչների վրա հիմնված ստուգում

summative test	ամփոփիչ ստուգում
Supporting position	դիրքորոշման հիմնավորում
teacher portfolio	ուսուցչի թղթապանակ
The philosophy of care	խնամքի փիլիսոփայություն
thematic unit	թեմատիկ միավոր
understanding	ըմբռնում
validity of assessment	զնախատման վավերություն
Value education	արժեքային կրթություն
Values clarification	արժեքների հստակեցում